Developing Pedagogies for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in Higher Education

Applied Chinese Language Studies IV

Edited by
Minjie XING
Linda Mingfang LI

Selected Papers from the British Chinese Language Teaching Society
2012 International Symposiums

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Preface

We are very pleased to present this collection of selected papers which resulted from the 10th BCLTS International Conference **Developing Pedagogies for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in Higher Education** held at the University of Central Lancashire in July 2012 with generous sponsorship from Confucius Institutes. The conference drew participants from all over the world, and over 50 paper proposals were received and some 40 presentations were delivered at different sessions of the conference.

We are living in a world of ever increasing communication between peoples speaking different languages and there has been a steady rise in the interest in learning Chinese, especially in higher education. It was in this context that the conference set pedagogies of teaching Chinese in HE as its theme in a hope to provide a platform for practitioners and researchers to exchange their ideas and experiences, and approach the field from a variety of perspectives. The book consists of twenty papers which come under three headings: Theory, From theory to practice, and Practice.

Part I has five articles that are more concerned with theoretical issues, research methodology and general trend in language teaching. George X ZHANG's paper reviews the concept of partial competence and points out the misconceptions around competence, focusing on the future development in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Europe, especially with regard the CEFR and the European Benchmarking Chinese (EBCL) project. In his article, Tang Xiaomin gives an overview of the reform and its trend in Chinese language teaching in mainland China.

Tinghe JIN reports early findings on intercultural competence (IC) in learning Chinese as a foreign language. The data collected from semi-structured interviews were analysed using a thematic analysis approach. The dimensions of IC and relevant approaches in learning Chinese as a foreign language were identified. The research suggests that elements of culture and IC should be embedded in intercultural dialogue in classrooms. Shejiao XU uses TAPs as the standard data elicitation method from the perspective of social science research, showing more possibilities in collecting qualitative and quantitative data with the example of a pilot qualitative research into translators' management styles. The next paper discusses the role of students in a power sharing context. Weiming LIU and

Ann DEVITT report a three-year action research project on the enforcement of different aspects of a Chinese classroom teacher's identity and their study suggests that shared classroom power relations between teachers and students, and between students, are an essential component of language teaching and learning, and therefore teachers' contributions to language classes should be optimized in collaboration with their students.

There are nine papers in Part II, which concerns mostly with learning and teaching strategies and how to deal with various general issues with regard to Chinese language in and outside classrooms. Linda Mingfang LI discusses the role of L1 transfer and points out that the majority of staff and students in HE in the UK are not English native speakers. From the perspective of comparative study, her research results suggest that the features of English indeed have an effect on English speaking students learning Chinese. The pedagogical implication is that language teachers can explore the different features between English and Chinese and encourage positive transfer. Zhimin WANG and Erhong YANG explore the distributional characteristics of five-year news and extract a statistical common idiom database for Chinese teaching by choosing different time points on the large-scale corpus. With factors analysis, they suggest that the high-frequency idioms in the large scale statistical data should be incorporated into textbooks. Xiuping LI and Wendy SWAN report on a trial of developing economic principles and practical strategies used in a CFL business Chinese beginners' class at Newcastle College, UK. They developed a series of economic principles to support learners in achieving maximum results. The data were collected through each learner's initial and end of course feedback, and the completion of a 5 topic-based portfolio to shape the results. Their findings indicate that economic principles are efficient and effective in CFL business Chinese beginner class, which can serve as the basis for further studies.

Zhiyan GUO analyzes the difference between Chinese and European languages in written forms, and the attribution to the barriers of learning Chinese at higher stages. The paper suggests that if used appropriately, learning strategies can assist Chinese language learning, particularly in reading comprehension. From a more collaborative angle, Minjie XING and Chiara ROMAGNOLI present a research between Manchester University, UK and Università degli Studi Roma Tre, Italy. They suggest that an inductive approach can supplement the deductive approach in classroom teaching; more scenario-based situation can be provided for oral practice; and workshops/ seminars or language clinics can be regularly run by NNS of Chinese. Further research cooperation, such as sharing e-learning resources can be initiated and on a wider scale, so that Chinese language teaching in the UK and in continental Europe can be mutually facilitated.

Lingfei WU's paper argues that there are two main factors influencing students' attention in class: one is an internal factor, the motivation of the students who choose Chinese as a second/foreign language; the other one is an external factor, students' habits formed in certain circumstances. Based on the observation of the concentration patterns of college students in the classroom, Wu suggests using well-written Chinese language teaching materials, combined with appropriate teaching methods, to produce good teaching results. Yonghong SUN and Xiangdong XU conducted their research using Oxford's language learning strategy questionnaire and their research results show that cognitive strategies, social strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, memory strategies and compensation strategies are highly correlated with learning achievements. Pedagogical suggestions are put forward. Xu GENG stresses the fact that no two students are exactly the same in terms of language background, learning pace, learning ability and motivation, and suggests Chinese teachers be aware of this issue and look for appropriate techniques and strategies. GENG discusses the relevant principles and strategies such as task differentiation and flexible grouping. Bo HU's paper addresses the role of language learning strategies by looking at the awareness of language learning strategies among teachers and learners, as opposed to specific language learning strategies. His survey indicates that, at present, neither teachers nor students are consciously aware of language learning strategies, and therefore he suggests that there is a need for a learning strategy training program.

The six papers in Part III all focus on the actual teaching of Chinese, be it teaching material or aspects of the language. Lihua HAN points out the lack of rhetoric in language teaching and the necessity to make a change. HAN discusses the integration into language teaching of rhetoric features, such as intonation, pause, speed, rhyme and rhythm, and suggests that rhetoric should not only be integrated with classroom teaching, but also be part of textbook writing, curriculum design and assessment. Hee San TEOH, Chor CHIN GOH and Wee KOON LIM incorporate Stella Cottrell's critical thinking skills model, Krashen's i+1 input hypothesis and Swain's output hypothesis, to develop a set of tools using thinking skills models to help students master oral presentation skills. This is followed by a paper by Zhenhua YUAN and Jie ZENG who illustrate how the tone marks as discussed by Zhao Yuanren are used in Mandarin and Cantonese teaching in Hong Kong Polytechnic University. With graphs and gestures, different tones can be vividly shown to students, which effectively assist students with the recognition of tone marks, leading to better comprehension. Zhiping ZHOU's paper deals with the teaching of a special construction in Chinese and illustrates the characteristics of object, verb and pragmatic implications of BA sentences, with the aim to help beginner-level learners understand the semantic meaning, collocation, syntactic restrictions, context and pragmatic effects of BA sentences so as to build a good foundation for leaning more BA sentences with complicated structures in the future. Tian YOU analyses the problems that Chinese language teachers face in a non-native language context. After conducting an experiment, YOU suggests solving problem from an angle of syllabus and textbook design. TANG Xiaomin argues that based upon Chinese language, the technique of reading aloud is a special and effective way in learning and teaching Chinese.

We hope that our readers find this book useful. The book is for language teachers who would like to keep informed of the current trend in and think about making their language teaching more interesting and enjoyable; for language learners who are seeking ways to improve their language teaching; for language professionals who are interested in the theories of foreign language acquisition and its implications for second/foreign language teaching; and also for educational organizations or higher education institutions for developing their new or existing syllabus. We also hope our readers will enjoy reading this book as much as we did in preparing it.

We are grateful for Cypress Book Co. UK Ltd. who has unremittingly supported BCLTS in the publication of this book as part of the research paper series of the BCLTS conference.

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Contents

|第一部分|

Part 1

Concept of Partial Competence and Its Implications for Chinese Language Teaching

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Abstract

Like most European foreign language teaching in universities, Chinese language teaching (CLT) has also set as one of its main objectives the development of communicative competence in its learners, increasingly pegged onto the Common European Framework of References (CEFR). However, it is not uncommon to find it difficult to answer questions such as “what competence is likely to be developed in the current system and in our courses?” and “can the courses really achieve what they have set out to do in the course descriptions?” for many Chinese language courses currently running in the universities. This has to a large extent something to do with how the concept of competence is understood. In recent years, partial competence, a concept mentioned in CEFR, is becoming increasingly a hot topic in the circle of language learning and teaching in Europe, as the teaching of other European foreign languages has also been wrestling with the similar problems. But for Chinese language, there is an extra distance as compared with home European languages as a foreign language in Europe. It is critical to have a clear understanding of this as it would affect not only the teaching of Chinese and its assessment, including the new HSK which is getting widely used, especially by the promotional efforts of Confucius Institutes, but also, perhaps even more importantly, the future development of CLT in the context of a multilingual Europe, a policy that EU has been pursuing vigorously through its planned and funded actions and projects. The paper will start with a brief review of the concept of partial competence and a quick look at some of the misconceptions around competence in CLT, then it will focus on implications of the concept of partial competence for the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language and for its future developments in Europe, especially with regard the CEFR and the European Benchmarking Chinese (EBCL) project which is underway since 2010. The paper would like to draw attention to partial competence as there is still clear lack of interest and study of this significant concept in the field of Chinese language teaching in the UK, including universities.

Key words: *Language competence, Partial competence, Chinese language learning, Assessment and HSK*

1. Introduction

Partial competence is a concept mentioned in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) but does not seem to have produced as much an impact on language educational practice as the framework itself though there have been some discussions about it. It is not until recent years that there is a revival of interest in the concept through the great efforts and pain that the Council of Europe has put in in wrestling with the daunting logic problem of second or foreign language acquisition and learning while the EU membership continues to expand, and consequently the number of languages involved increases rapidly, if taken into consideration not only national and regional languages, but also community or immigrant languages. So both the political and practial reality have helped lead to this increased level of interest in partial compentence as the traditional mother tongue model of modern language learning and teaching do not work in the context of a multilingual and multicultural Europe. This shift of interest also takes place against a fresh reflection on another related key concept of plurilingual and pluralcultural competence, which is said to have been misinterpreted when it was translated from French into English as two related but separated concepts of plurilingual competence and plurilcultural competence (see Coste et al, 2009).

Plurilinguism takes into consideration an individual's experience of language and acknowledges that it would extend from home to the society, and then to the languages of other people, whether learnt at shool or through direct experience in a multilingual context such as Europe. As this takes place, the individual does not keep these languages and cultures in a strictly separate mental compartments, but builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contribues and in which different languages (including retional dialects) interrelated and interact.

As a community or immigrant language, the Chinese language has enjoyed a wide spread of increased level of interest in Eruope in the recent years. For the Chinese language, there is an extra distance as compared with any other European national and regional languages to make it a distinctively different, thus truly second or foreign language in Europe. The special feature of Chinese that it appears to have a partition to European language speakers between its written form and phonetic presentation offers a convining example that it is only natural that a modern language learner or user would result in an imbalanced language skill (competences) set, no matter in an educational setting or in real life. A good understanding of this feature will help not only shed light on the discussion of what partial competence is about and its impact on modern language learning and teaching on the whole, but also impact on the teaching of Chinese, its assessment and its future development in the context of a multilingual Europe, a policy that EU has been pursuing vigorously through its planned and funded actions and projects such as the on-going European Benchmarking Chinese language (EBCL) project .

2. Communicative competence and partial competence

It is clear that the underlining political purposes in the reation of the CEFR has to a large extent determined that it was meant to be a framework for European languages, the national and regional languages of the member states of the European Union and the Council of Europe (Zhang and Li, 2004). This political intention has also determined that the CEFR serves as a means to faciliate the political unity, social cohesion and integration of the European Union, thus it aims at helping improve and raise the communicative competences of the citizens of the member states through many of EU's language programmes by providing a common framework of reference for languages that describes the standards of communication competence[a] across all the languages concerned.

The rapid increase in both the number and scope of languages concerned were well captured by Trim back in 1997 who wrote that in the last few years. "members of the Counil for Cultural Co-operation has almost doubled, and the number of national and regional languages concerned has increased proportationately, or even far more steeply if account is taken of the very large number of mother tongues brought in by immigrant populations from other continenents and used on a daily

① As the EFR says in its opening paragraph, "The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriulum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It desceibes in a comprehensive way what languge learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to ative effectively." (Council of Europe, 2001) basis.(Trim, 1997:vii). The inclusion of many non European immigrants' language has greatly added linguistic complexity to what would appear to be a simple language matter in the original framework in terms of the communicative competences involved.

In the CEFR, three types of competences are identified for effective communication involving the use of languages - general competence, communicative language competence, and pragmatic competene. Each of these three competences further consists of a number of sub-competences. Thus the general competence is made of declarative knowledge (savoir) (knowledge of the world; socio-cultural knowledge; intercultural awareness), skills and know-how (sovoir-faire), (practical skills and know-how; intercultural skills and know-how), existential competence (savoir-etre), and ability to learn (language and communication awareness; general phonetic awareness and skills; study skills; heuristic skills); communicative language competence consists of linguistic competences (lexical; grammatical; semantic; phonological; orthographic and orthoepic), and sociolinguistic competences (linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions; expressions of folk wisdom; register differences; dialect and accent); and finally pragmatic competence refers to a range of competenes such as discourse competence, functional competence (both micro and macro) in the four domains, interaction schemata, and fluency and propositional precision matter. (CEFR, 2001).

The above division and definition are comprehensive and conceptually useful, but they seem to be based upon the case of mother tongue or through formal learning rather than that of foreign languages or through informal learning. In fact, much of traditional foreign language learning and teaching have been based upon this kind of mother tongue approach, which aims to be full and comprehensive, thus contributing to a large extent the common frustration in foreign language learning, especially for adult language learners and through informal learning as such are hardly attainable objectives. It is not uncommon that very often even a native speaker may not be able to deal with all situations due to knowledge gap or lack of interest, for instance some sports or a hobby. Therefore, full language competene is very much an ideal situation and is achievable only in a first language or a bilingual environment through a formal educational system with its minimum target literacy level, ofen endorsed by the completion of ***compulsory education***, or an authoritative language proficiency test ; partial competence is an absolute and constant state for foreign language learners and users, particularly adults who often have some specific needs to function in a foregin language environment.

It is precisely with such case and needs of adult language learners and users that the CEFR proposes the concept of partial competence for the situation "when only a more *restricted knowledge* of a language is required" or "when *a limited amount of time* is available" (p.1), which for some reason hasn't attracted much attention until recently. If examined closely, it is clear that the word "partial" has two meanings: a) in part; not entirely, and b) preferential or biased.

The first meaning of partial competence is obviously as stated above, as it is hardly possible to attain a full competence in a foreing or second language as adults. The second meaning indicates clearly the motivation and use of a foreign language by adults as they often chose to learn certain skills over others (e.g. reading over writing) or in a certain domain (e.g. personal and professional) as these are sufficient to meet the needs and requirements, which often may change from time to time. In Europe where multiculturalism and multilingualism are seen to be fundamental for achieving soial cohension and integration, and its citizen may need to learn and function in a number of languages, the issue of partial competence is even more acute and pressing. It is for this that Trim also talked in the same preface about the need to have a languag policy that can encourage "every learer to achieve an intergrating communication competene spanning a large number of languages and cultures encompassing not only general competences at different levels, but also balanced competences fostering receptive skills" (1997:vii)

It is not an exaggeration to say that all foreign or second language learning and teaching in Europe would subsequently result in partial competence no matter what they state that they aim to achieve. This is because in second or foreign language environment, the learning and teaching are atually confined to the use of the language for certain activities in certain domain/s. This is particularly true of adult language learners and how they differ from young native learners of their mother tongue in which the purpose of learning is more general than specific. Today, European multilingualism is very much a cause as well as a result of a number of factors. Firstly, the democratic progress in Europe is reflected in the transition from previous prescriptive linguistic comptence to a descriptive competence; secondly, migrants' languages become more diverse and often somewhat different from those in the country or community where they are orginated; thirdly, language use is more about real communication; and fourthly, the number of foreign language users to non native speakers has increased phenomenally, communicating more inter-culturally than cross culturally. However, competence is defined or described, the acquisition and manifestation of that competence by only partial, depending on conditions, experiences and opportunities available. So this is why "giving formal recognition to such abilities will help to promote plurilingualism through the learning of a wider variety of European languages."

If the above is not enough to illustrate the point on partial competence, the case of Chinese helps to prove the point as there seems to be a "partitoin" between its phonetic and graphic constructs, which is very different from any European languages. This linguistic feature has determined to a large extent that only partial competence is attainable for learners in Europe no matter if it is through formal learning or informal learning.

3. A partitioned language: case of Chinese①

Professor Joel Bellassen, a well known sinologist and Chinese language educator, from National Institute of Oriental Languages and Civilisations at Paris, has very vividly termed Chinese language as a language with partitions, like the hard-disc of a computer. For this, he refers to the unusual disparities for European learners of Chinese between the phonetic symbols (pinyin) and their representations in writing, ie. Chinese characters, and the different skills needed for the reproduction of Chinese writing by hand and with the aid of computers. For many European learners of Chinese, learning Chinese seems to be a doubly punishing endeavour, where one has not only to learn oral communication (listenning and speaking) separately from written communication (reading and writing) , but also learing to read (which also include writing by using word processing software) separately from learing to actually write by hand.

These special feature of Chinese has made it even more problematic for European learners to develop full competence in the language. In fact, many sinologists and Chinese language specialists have warned that it is an unlikely task to fulfill if a Chinese language programme aims to achieve too much, with giving due and proper consideration to such features of Chinese, which often present special difficulties for Europeans, a very reason which renders Chinese as one of the most difficult languages to learn and thus warrants more time to reach the similar level as any other European languages.

It is because of these special features of Chinese that many innovative approaches have been developed in the learning and teaching of Chinese, usually depending on the different purposes of learning Chinese and objectives of teaching Chinese. Historically Europeans were the first to invent a phonetic representation of Chinese pronunciation by using alphabetic symbols that they were familiar with. There is pure phonetic speaking approach where little reading and writing are involved so that the focus is on developing oral communication competence; there is graphic approach to reading where Chinese characters are diciphered and explained in a way so that they are comprehensible to European frame of mind and perspectives. With regard to learning Chinese, there are also different approaches or/and terms as characted based versus word based methods. However, few of these efforts have actually attempted at learning the whole Chinese language, but instead at some targeted parts in order to learn enough to satisfy their communication needs. This partial approach from the historical perspective is quite enlightening to our learning and teaching of Chinese in the present time.

① This part is mostly from the contribution by Professor Joel Bellassen, with whom a joint presentation on the same topic was given at a seminar orgasanised by PLIDAM at Inalco in May 2012.

4. Impliations of partial competence for learning and teaching Chinese

The definition of partial competence has a number of implications for the learning and teaching of Chinese in multilingual Europe.

Only partial competence is a constant and attainable state when learning languages such as Chinese in Europe. In fact, it is not exagerating to assume that all foreign language learning, almost by default, can only achieve partial competences in the absolute sense of the concept, given that for language learners, especially adults there is only limited amount of time and restricted language learning and application environment. **Full competence** is usually possible only in the first language environment (including bilingualism) in a formal educational system, often endorsed through completion of ***compulsory education***, or an authoritative language proficiency test. Even in first language, there is still much talked about functional literacy problem in most developed states like the UK. According to a recent survey by Literacy Trust, UK, (2013), there is about 15% of the adult population who have completed compulsory education but have only reached the level of 11 year old in terms of their literay level. Therefore, it is not realistic to set full competence as an attainable objective in learning and teaching Chinese in European context.

It is a matter of choice in learning and teaching Chinese as a foreign language what partial competences is to achieve, depending on the purpose of learning and teaching when it comes to the *degree of general competence (coverage)*; *levels of communicative competence (linguistic)* and *extent of pragmatic competence (functional)*, but involving more intercultural communication for the European context and crosscultural communication when using it with native speakers. For the first purpose, particial competence means that at an initial level learners of Chinese may not necessarily need to learn expressions such as “Ni chi le ma? (have you eaten?)” as a way of greeting (e.g. function), which is more adequate for the second purpose of learning and teaching, for Mandarin home context. Initial foreign language learning and teaching need to reflect again on multilingualism and the issue of intercultural communication, especically when two non native speakers use a foreign language, say, Chinese by a French and German. Learning and teaching Chinese in Europe is not like 对外汉语教学 , which is in fact teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages in China. Partial competence is definitely applicable but it is more cross culturally based as 吃了吗 (see above) as a greeting or 你挣多少钱 (How much do you earn?) all form part of the competences required to function effectively in the language home environment.

Partial competence also means that learning Chinese in Europe is usually for some specific purpose as well as for general communication, which forms the basis of all useful communications. Chinese for specific purposes, mostly for instrumental reasons, are related to the motivation of learning and teaching. In many ways, this is what the European Benchmarking Chinese Language project (EBCL) was created for, to provide a framework of competence descriptors for Chinese based upon the Common European Framework of Reference as a non European language Chinese to be used as a foreign language primarily in the context of multilingual Europe, a very real partial competence, both for general and specific communiation purposes.

Most modern foreign language teaching appears to still focus on teaching it as the first language aiming at achieving full competences. In the context of a multilingual Europe, Chinese language teaching programmes should aim to develop linguistic and socio-linguisttic competences that are required to function in a designed range of activities at their targeted level/s in certain domain/s, and assessed accordingly in these programmes. The stress on the part of the user, particular the learners mean that a negotiated curriculum would better motivate (adult) learners as they see the relevance and worth for their efforts and investment. Therefore, general language competence should not set as its aim to cover a full range, but a "stated/required" range as necessary to function in a particular environment and situation.

With regard to Chinese, the new Chinese language proficiency test (HSK) recently promoted by Hanban (the Council for Chinese Language International) seems to have been created with partial competence in learning and teaching Chinese as a foreign language in mind, though it is problematic to term itself as a proficiency test. Unlike the previous HSK which was designed as a true proficiency test, the new one has set as its target at initial levels a very limited range of socio-cultural activities and linguistic elements. So it is not really a proficiency test but a designed promotional tool to encourage the learning and teaching of Chinese. This approach, however, can be of use to the learning and teaching of Chinese in Europe based upon the results of the EBCL projects. In other words, this language proficieny must be backed up by the ability to adapt to the working and living environments characterised by different cultures.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, the question of partial competence propels us to reflect yet again, but more attentively this time, on the theory and practice of our modern language learning and teaching in the context of a multilingual and multicultural Europe. Realistically, partial competence is an absolute, practical and attainable objective for majority of the language learners or populartion while native full competence remains to be an ideal but hardly attainable goal that has baffled both learners and teachers of modern foreign languages for decades.

This is particularly true for such languages as Chinese which is very distant culturally and linguistically from European languages. Therefore, effective and efficient learning and teaching of Chinese need take into consideration both the use and features of the language in the European context today.

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近年中国大陆语文教学改革趋势与对外汉语教学

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从上个世纪末开始，中国大陆教育界发动的“第八次课改”，其重点是语文教学的改革。这一改革之中，有着不同声音的。主持改革第八课改的专家，其教育思想明显带有西化的色彩，因此，语文专家组也不能不受到影响。但语文教育涉及面非常大，可以说受到了全社会的关注，因此，这一改革也拥有更多的思想资源，因此具体的改革并不为西化的思路所限，而表现出一种与西化课改不同的趋势，这就是语文教学回归传统的趋势。

中国是一个有着数千年文明的国家，形成了高度发达的文化，而文化与教育密不可分，教育可以看作是文化的传承过程，文化发达，教育必然也是发达的。而中国古代的教育，可以说主要是一个“大语文”的教育，这种教育在数千年的发展过程中，积累了丰富的经验。这不仅表现在一些具体的做法上，更重要的是，这些具体做法的背后有其深刻的思想内涵。

首先，中国传统语文教育是“重文”的教育。“文”可以说是中国古代文化的核心。古人认为，整个宇宙都有“文”，刘勰《文心雕龙》开篇的《原道》讲提出“天文、地文、人文”的说法。此前的《易经》讲“观乎人文，以化成天下”，这是中国古代的“文化”一词的来源。孔子曰：“焕乎其有文章”。整个中国古代的文化教育就是围着“文”转：上学首先是识字，识字就是学“文”，识字之后要读书，读书当然是与字打交道。再以后是作文。中国古代教育培养的是“文人”，文人的特点当然是能写“文章”，所谓“文章”，是有“文采”的文字作品。再说开去，人们认为“文”关乎社会政治的一切方面，所以有“经天纬地谓之文”，帝王的谥号中，“文”是最高的。历史上，许多人凭一篇文章就“名垂青史”。新旧《唐书》的韩愈传都全文收录了他的文章《进学解》等，中国古代写史非常讲究简洁，可以说是“惜墨如金”，却可以让一篇文章占这样大的篇幅。这充分显示了古代对“文”的重视。相比之下，中国古代的“语”没有这样的地位。“语”只是说话、答话。是人的“语言”，而“语言”的价值与“文”不能相比。唐代的韩愈在其名文《送孟东野序》中说：“人声之精者为言，文辞之于言，又其精也，”这里说的“言”是“语言”，他认为语言比人发出的一般的声音精妙，但文辞更比语言精妙。这也是中国古人的通常的观念。

在语文教育中，中国传统语文教学的一大特点是“篇章本位”。重点放在篇章感受、领悟之上，而不重字词的讲解。儿童识字课本也都是成“篇”的，如《三字经》、《千字文》都如此。有的人家甚至连“三、百、千”也不用读，直接教孩子读书。邓云乡先生介绍俞平伯的学习经历时就说：“俞平伯老先生三足岁读书时，就开始读《大学》”接着，邓云乡又“从特例到普遍”，说道：“读《四书》大约一般聪明才智，有一年半到两年，就读的滚瓜烂熟了。按《四书》白文，《论语》一万二千七百字，《孟子》三万四千六百多字，加‘大、中’约五万字，……这点功夫非在十来岁时打好不可。然后再读《诗经》、《书经》、《礼记》、《易经》等。中国传统语文教育这种做法，是非常富有智慧的。因为，从表面上看，文章是由字词“组成”的，字词应该是文章的基础，但实际上，文章的内容是具体的，而字词却是抽象的，其本身的含意并不确定，按维果茨基的说法，“字词只有在句子中才能获得意义，但句子本身也只有在文章段落的上下文中才能获得意思。”[1] 这也就是说，真正理解字词的含意，倒是需要多读文章，而不是讲解那些字词。中国历史学家周谷城也说：“我们要知道，识字量不是用识字的方法所可以增加的。因为字不是单独可以识的，如此识法，即使识了，未必能读书看报。我还记得，在中学时代，因学英文，会把一部字典从头到尾读得烂熟，但是遇到了生字，还是不懂，反而愈弄愈糊涂了。因为一字一义的极少。任何字的真意义必须看它的上下文而定，所以就是已识的字，换了一个新的位置，也许意义与所识的大不相同。”[2]

怎样学习篇章？在这方面，传统语文教学也有成功的经验，这就是重视诵读，而不是烦琐的讲授。在今人眼中，文章属书面语言，是“看”的。而古人则认为文章是需要读出声的。就像音乐作品，虽然可以纪录到纸上成为曲谱，但学习音乐总不能默默地对着曲谱看来看去，而必须是唱出来。古人认为，文章也需要“唱出来”，这就是“吟诵”。这吟诵非常重要。姚鼐就说：“大抵学古文者，必要放声疾读，又缓读，祗久之自悟。若但能默读，即终身作外行也。”

出声的诵与默默的看有何差异呢？在古人看来，这是很不同的。看只是动眼及脑，而吟诵则不仅动眼动脑，同时也动用听觉，乃至全部的心力、体力。清人梅曾亮说：“夫观书者，用目之一官而已；诵之则入于耳，益一官矣。且出于口，成于声，而畅于气。夫气者，吾身之至精者也；以吾身之至精，御古人之至精，是故浑合而无间矣。”即是说，吟诵不仅加上的耳，更重要的是加上的“气”，而“气”是“身之至精者”。“气”可以“御古人之至精”而与古人“浑合而无间”。大致意思是说，吟诵是动用人的全部精神力量与古人实现心灵的沟通。古人懂得，看面对的无声的文字，看文字时，其声调、节奏是不能直接体会到的，而作品的情感主要包含在声调、节奏中，故只有吟诵，才能深切地体会作者的情感，走进作者的心灵世界。让自己与古人“浑合而无间”。

与古人的心灵的这种沟通，是一种深切的情感体验，多一次吟诵，便多一重体验。而人的体会、理解能力，也正是在吟诵中不断提升的，故此，古人谈读书，多讲“遍数”。如朱熹讲：“凡读书，须整顿几案，令洁净端正，将书册整齐顿放。正身体，对书册，祥缓看字，仔细分明读之。须要读得字字响亮，不可误一字，不可少一字，不可多一字，不可倒一字，不可牵强

暗记。只是要多诵遍数，自然上口，久远不忘。”又说：“书须熟读，所谓只是一般然，读十遍时与读一遍时终别，读百遍时与读十遍又自不同也。”吕祖谦也是如此，说道：“凡读书务必精熟。若或记性迟钝，则多诵遍数，自然精熟，记得牢靠。若是遍数不够，只务强记，今日成诵，来日便忘，其与不曾读诵何异？”程端蒙也是一样，说：“读书必专一，必正心肃容，以计遍数：遍数已足，而未成诵，必须成诵，遍数未足，虽已成诵，必满遍数。一书已熟，方读一书，毋务泛观，毋务强记。”姚鼐的话：“大抵学古文者，必要放声疾读，只久之自悟；若但能默看，即终身作外行也。”又引曾国藩的话：“如‘四书’、《诗》、《书》、《易经》、《左传》、《昭明文选》、李、杜、韩、苏之诗，韩、欧、曾、王之文，非高声朗读则不能得其雄伟之概，非密吟恬吟不能探其深远之趣。二者并进，使古人之声调副然若与我之喉舌相习，则下笔时必有句调凑赴腕下，自觉琅琅可诵矣。”（见《家训・字谕纪泽》）这都是很精当的。中国台湾学者龚鹏程也讲：“中国人读书，讲究讽诵。亦即不仅是阅读，更须体会文章字句中蕴涵的声情。起承转合，抑扬顿挫，韵律之铿锵，文气之卷舒，都应在讽诵中体会出来。”[3]

在语文教学改革方面，已经有了许多成功的经验。如深圳市宝安区新安中学语文特级教师吴泓，11 年来不用童便的《高中语文》教材，而是组织“专题性语文”教学，指导学生大量读书。从古代的《诗经》、《楚辞》、《论语》、李白、杜甫、韩愈、王安石、苏轼，到现代的鲁迅、萧红、曹禺、沈从文，再到当代的北岛、顾城、海子、王小妮、雷平阳……从文艺复兴的莎士比亚，到“人道主义”的雨果、托尔斯泰，到“迷惘的一代”的海明威，到意识流小说先锋伍尔芙、存在主义者加缪……每一个专题学习，学生的阅读都在 10 万字以上。两年下来，每一个学生的阅读量不少于 150 万字。每一次专题学习之后学生上交的习作，少则 2000 多字，多则 6000 字，两年每一个学生写作平均不少于 2.5 万字，一些学生一次专题习作就多达 3 万字。这种做法，极大地提高了学生的阅读能力和写作能力。

另一个成功的例子是中国山东潍坊的小学语文教师韩兴娥“课内海量阅读”。她的做法很简单，就是在课堂上和学生一起阅读课外书，不求甚解，模糊理解。每个学期阅读量达 50 万至 100 万字。让学生“多读书、会读书、读好书”的语文学习之道。这种看似简单的做法，却产生了惊人的效果。她的学生，低年级课堂阅读就达 50 万字，相当于一般小学同年级学生阅读量的 10 多倍以上。中年级的阅读量则达到了 300 万字。由于读书多，她的学生可以出口成章，口若悬河，知识面广，而且有独到见解。

中国大陆语文教育发展的这一新趋势，可以为对外汉语教学提供有益的启示。对外汉语教学的对象与国内的普通学生自然是不同的，但所学习的内容却都是汉语言文学，而学习方法一方面要适应教学的对象，另方面也需要适合于内容的特点。长期以来，中国国内的语文教学一直存在着过于西化的问题，事实上是用教外语的方式来教母语。近年来，语文教学改革过程中涌现的回归传统的趋势。至少在如下一个方面，可以为对外汉语教学提供借鉴：

首先，在对外汉语教学中，应在“听说读写”并重的前提下，加强阅读教学，通过大量的阅读，感受和理解中国语言文化，领略中国文化的魅力。一般地说，口语和书面语都很重要，

但从教育的角度，两者的价值是不同的。口语比较简单，而书面语则有更为丰富的文化内涵。中国学者、诗人梁宗岱曾说过，口语与书面书首先有着字汇上的差异，他说："一般人通常用的字不过五六百，即知识分子至多亦不过三千而已。所以我们初到一国，只要专心学习它的语言，五六个月后便可以无大隔碍地生活，作应对如流的谈话。读书和作文可就不同了。且别提那些研究学理，满纸专门术语的书，且别提那些绮旎蕴藉，纡回为妍的诗文；就是一本通俗小说，下过十年八年死工夫的人有时还不免要碰到难解的字句。"[4]这就是"语"与"文"的区别。所谓学习"语言"，实际上必须学好了"文"才算真正学好了语言。若想掌握好的口语，也需要的是从"文"入手。否则也就只是"无大隔碍地生活，作应对如流的谈话"而已。同样重要的是，中国文化尽管在口语中也有体现，但主要仍然保留在古往今来的各种著作之中，亦即保留在书面语之中。不掌握汉语书面语，就难于掌握中国文化。

其次，对外汉语教学应从汉语的特点出发，重视朗诵的教学，不宜过多依赖烦琐的分析、讲解。就中国国内几十年的语文教育经验来看，对文章做过多的分析、讲解，是没有益处的。中国语文教育家于漪就特别反对"繁琐哲学"，认为这种过于烦琐的讲解是"将许多文质兼美的文章"肢解"成若干习题，抠这个字眼，抠那个层次，文章的灵魂不见了。脑子里如马蹄杂沓，堆砌了许多字、词、句的零部件。"这已经渐成语文界的共识。近年来，语文教育的有识之士非常重视朗诵，语文课堂上又有了朗朗读书声，而且，教者也很重视范读，以自己的朗诵感染学生，唤起学生的感情。同时，朗诵也能够表现出汉语的音韵之美。

再次，对外汉语教学不能太多地依赖现在的汉语语法。现在的汉语语法很不成熟，这一点，连语言学家也是承认的，如张志公大半生搞语法，但到晚年，他这样说："时至今日，我们对汉语语法的本质，了解得并不清楚。我在这里提出对汉语语法要'再认识'，就是说对一些根本性的问题，还需要做进一步的探讨。[5]还说："汉语的'动词''名词''形容词'的界限本来就不那么清楚，而且进行英语那样的词类区分，实际意义也是不太大的，因此汉语的词是否有必要按传统的做法那样，分成八大类或九大类，这也是值得重新研究的。"[6]"实事求是地说，到现在为止，恐怕还没有任何一部是真正的汉语语法。从引进以后，又亦步亦趋，人家有什么，我们就跟着引进什么。例如人家有结构主义了，我们也引进，人家结构主义都陈旧了，我们还当新鲜东西来引进；人家又有转换生成了，我们又引进；到今天还在引进之中，都没有产生过一部真正能反映汉语实际的汉语语法体系。""语法需要动大手术，其中之一就是，名词、动词、形容词未尝不可以不讲。这一划分有什么意义呢？""在《语言教学与研究》上有一位先生发表文章，否定汉语有单句复句之分。我觉得这也不无道理。"[7]这就是说，张志公先生晚年把自己一生辛辛苦苦搞的语法理论几乎都否定了！而季羡林更是批评说："我们许多语言学家把汉语也照英语一样分析来分析去，越分析越让人不明白。我认为是走进了死路。"[8]语文在理论上有问题，在教学实践上，对汉语现象往往也解释不清楚。特级语文教师钱梦龙说，他曾经听过不少这样的课：一句生活中很常见的话"妈妈叫我到里屋去拿一个苹果给小朋友吃"，老师用语法分析了半天，学生却是一脸茫然。自然，教外国学生学习汉语，还是需要讲一讲语法的，只

是，教者心中要有数，不能过分地依赖语法的讲解。

注：

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5. 张志公着：《张志公自选集》，第 414 页，北京大学出版社
6. 张志公着：《张志公自选集》，第 417 页，北京大学出版社
7. 张志公着：《张志公自选集》，第 545 页，北京大学出版社
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Intercultural competence in the learning of Chinese as a foreign language in the UK – an exploratory study

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Abstract

This paper reports early findings of my doctoral research into intercultural competence (IC) in learning Chinese as a foreign language in UK Higher Education (HE). The data were collected from the pilot phase based on semi-structured interviews with 6 university teachers/researchers and were analysed using thematic analysis approach. My study aims to identify dimensions of IC and relevant approaches in learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). The main research question is: *How is intercultural competence conceptualised in teaching and learning Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE?* Chinese learning continues to expand in UK universities and schools and this development has brought challenges. Most interviewees were unaware of the relevance of IC; however, elements of culture and IC are embedded in intercultural dialogue in classrooms. This research has implications for the practice of teaching and learning CFL, for curriculum development and for pedagogy from a cultural perspective in UK HE.

Keywords: Chinese as a foreign language, culture, intercultural competence

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1. Context

1.1 Introduction

The need for learning Chinese was driven by economic and political demands in the world (Hu, 2010). According to Wang and Higgins (2008), a further impetus for the expansion of Mandarin learning and teaching in the UK comes through the promotions by the UK and Chinese governments.

The mass media in the UK (e.g., BBC News, 2012) has commented on the role of English as a global language that has been challenged by Chinese. Globally, there are nearly 40 million learners studying Chinese as a foreign language and this number was forecast to be about 100 million by 2010 (The People's Daily, 2006). In the UK, an increasing number of students are interested in learning Chinese as their foreign language (Wang and Higgins, 2008). The number of Chinese learners in UK HE increased by 125% between 1996 and 2007, which was 1495 in 2007, according to data from the UK's Higher Education Statistics Agency (Hu, 2010). As CILT (the National Centre for Languages) (2007) showed, between 400 and 500 secondary schools provided Chinese as a foreign language in England.

In line with these trends, the UK government's Ministry of Education is going to modify and improve the syllabus for foreign language education at schools: Mandarin as a compulsory course starts from third-year students in primary schools in 2014. These changes are 'preparation work for the China's upgrowth' (Fazhi Evening News, 2012). However, compared with European languages, the understanding of CFL is inadequate (Zhang and Li, 2010).

IC has been identified as a key focus in foreign language education. The Quality Assurance Agency for High Education (2007) identified intercultural awareness, understanding and competence are key learning outcomes for language graduates. It means students need to develop their knowledge and skills to compare the view of the world from their own languages and cultures with that of the languages and cultures they learn, and be able to apply the knowledge and skills learned to their own cultures and to societies. The skills that they will need to develop are 'a critical understanding of a culture and practices other than one's own', and 'an appreciation of the uniqueness of the other culture(s)'. They also need to be able to 'function in another culture', 'to articulate to others the contribution that the culture has made at a regional and global level'; 'engage with other cultures', and 'to appreciate and evaluate critically one's own culture' (p.8). These attributes have implications for pedagogy, curriculum and research on IC. IC covers attributes including being knowledgeable about the target culture (Byram, 1997a) and developing and owning an independent intercultural identity (Kramsch, 1993).

1.2 Views of culture in foreign language education

The importance of culture in language education has been identified (Crawford-Lange and Lange, 1984). Valdes (1990: 20) stated that 'there is no way to avoid teaching culture when teaching a language'. Culture penetrates throughout language learning and teaching, and every teacher and learner should be aware of the influence of culture to 'make the most of it' (Valdes, 1990: 29).

'"Culture" in language teaching and learning is usually defined pragmatically as a/the culture associated with a language being learnt' (Byram and Grundy, 2002: 193). Yin (2009: 76) identified two categories of culture in the context of foreign language education: 'the so-called advanced or formal culture, which is more related to "civilization", such as geography, history, literature, art, music, politics, economy, education, philosophy, … inventions and accomplishments in science and technology, etc. These cultural aspects usually constitute cultural knowledge information, which often serves as cultural background knowledge'; 'the so called popular culture or "deep culture", which is more related to everyday life including everyday living style, patterns of behaving, both verbal and non-verbal, thought, values, beliefs, social customs and habits, social norms and conventions, etc.'. Yin (2009) highly recommended the latter 'culture' as cultural content in foreign language education, as these cultural aspects contain linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour in daily life, which is essential for intercultural communication. There are various cultural features in foreign language education 'which often constitute cultural barriers in learning a foreign language and using it in communication, particularly in communication with native speakers' (Yin, 2009: 75). Some of these are lexical meaning, usage of expressions and pragmatic rules for use of many linguistic forms.

Arabski and Wojtaszek (2011) emphasised the role of socio-cultural context in language learning. They stated that scholars are attempting to focus on culture-related variables to incorporate the research on language learning which was led by a strong cognitive orientation. 'With intercultural communicative competence now being the goal of much of foreign language learning and teaching the questions concerning the relationship between language and culture have placed new emphasis in research on second language acquisition and foreign language learning' (Arabski and Wojtaszek, 2011: 2).

1.3 Cultural awareness (CA)

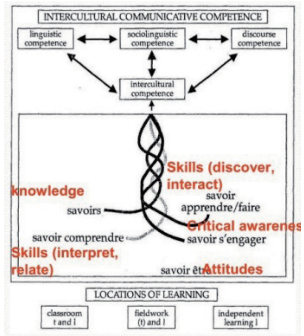
CA has been identified as ‘the promotion of understanding of and respect for other cultures’ (DES, 1990: 3, cited in Byram et al., 1994: 75). It implies an understanding target language culture that is essential for both native and target communities, and for successful learning of the language (DES, 1990, cited in Byram, 1997b: 51). Baker’s (2011a: 62) definition also focuses on cultural process, and he offers a comparative view: ‘L2 [or Second language] users need to understand L2 communication as a cultural process and to be aware of their own culturally based communicative behaviour and that of others.’ For Baker, in the context of English as a global lingua franca, the previous account of CA is problematic. Intercultural awareness ‘is best conceived as an extension of the earlier conceptions of CA that is more relevant to needs of intercultural communication in expanding circle and global lingua franca contexts, in which cultural influences are likely to be varied, dynamic, and emergent’ (*ibid*: 66). He conceptualised intercultural awareness as having three levels: basic, advanced cultural awareness and intercultural awareness. The basis of CA is ‘conscious understanding of the role culture plays in language learning and communication (in both first and foreign languages)’ (*ibid:* 65).

However, in my research, I would like to consider CA according to the nature of CFL in the UK, as Chinese is still a new subject. Baker (2011a) considered the concept of CA more explicitly in the light of the context of English as a global lingua franca. Intercultural awareness is viewed as a model of knowledge, skill and attitudes that required by an intercultural communication, ‘whilst recognising that the model may have a narrower range of applications in its focus on the unique characteristics of ELF’ (English as a global lingua franca) (Baker, 2011b: 198). Therefore, in my research, I use the concept of CA, and, new characteristics of which might be emerging in CFL with regard to IC.

Baker’s (2011b) interpretation of CA leads to a reflection on an ability developed to compare and mediate in different cultures during intercultural communication. It refers to IC which is used for effective engagement in intercultural communication. CA (critical cultural awareness) is considered by Byram (1997a: 53) as part of a framework of intercultural communicative competence: ‘an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries’.

1.4 Intercultural competence (IC)

Byram’s (1997a) intercultural communicative competence model (Figure 1) was developed for teaching and assessment in foreign language education. From this ICC model, communicative competence includes three aspects: linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse, while IC has four dimensions: knowledge, attitude, skills and critical cultural awareness.



(Figure 1, Byram, 1997a: 73)

'As the emerging modern approach to language education it has shifted the aims of language learning from communicative competence to intercultural competence. Intercultural competence recognises that a second language is learnt in order to be used and that language use is fundamentally cultural' (Crozet and Liddicoat, 1999: 113). As Baker (2011b: 200) stated, IC has been identified as 'one approach to systematically conceptualising and investigating the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour associated with successful intercultural communication'. In order to be successful in intercultural communication, students need to develop their IC. It brings new requirements for foreign language courses.

Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (n.d.: 7) agreed that knowledge, skills and attitudes are components of IC, and IC includes the values which 'one holds because of one's belonging to a number of social groups. These values are part of one's social identities'. Moloney (2009: 12) identified insights from foreign language education to identify the concept of IC: 'being a purposeful interactive user of language with correct contextual use (Kramsch, 1993; Liddicoat et al., 2003); having metalinguistic skill and linguistic transfer skills (Bialystok, 2001); being knowledgeable about target culture (Byram, 1997c), being reflective about the relationship between learner's cultures (Liddicoat et al., 2003; Sercu, 2002) and developing a sense of an intermediate 'place' in ownership of an independent intercultural identity (Kramsch, 1993)'.

IC requires learners to develop relevant knowledge and skills regarding target language and culture and their CA, and to be reflective and transferable among different languages and cultures. As Sercu (2004) summarised, there are two dimensions of IC identified by recent models: culture-specific (knowledge and skills about target culture) and culture-general knowledge and skills ('more generalizable in nature and transferable across cultures' (p.135)). Culture-general knowledge includes, for example, ‘the nature of cultural adjustment and learning’, ‘the impact of culture on communication and interaction between individuals or groups’, ‘the role of emotions in cross-cultural, cross-linguistic interactions’. Culture-general skills refer to, attributes such as ‘the capacity to display respect for and interest in the culture’, ‘tolerance and patience in cross-cultural situations’, ‘control of emotions and emotional resilience’ (p.135). IC requires learners to develop a view of two cultures (their own and that of target language) and a position where they mediate between these two.

Furthermore, the lack of empirical research on IC acquisition has been indicated by Sercu (2004: 4): it ‘is still very limited, and at any rate far more limited than that of studies investigating second language acquisition’. Sercu (2004), in addition, indicated further challenges for research: identifying different variables that influence the acquisition of IC and the relationships between these variables. Therefore, a study on learners’ IC can contribute to the knowledge in this field. In addition, with the aim of IC in language education, Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (n.d.: 9) suggested teachers ‘to develop skills, attitudes and awareness of values just as much as to develop a knowledge of a particular culture or country’. The social and cultural content need to be considered in teaching a second language, thus, emphasising that teachers need to develop their skills in integrating cultural aspects (Franson and Holliday, 2009). ‘Relation between culture and language is important to how teachers perceive language’ (Holme, 2003: 30).

However, it will be argued that the theoretical and pedagogic resources available for improving quality of education in terms of intercultural communication and intercultural competence need improvement to meet the reality of Chinese as a foreign language. In particular, the concept of IC in relation to foreign language learning needs to be expanded according to the need of CFL. A research project entitled “European Benchmark for Chinese language (EBCL)” is conducted to provide a framework of standards for the learning and teaching of Chinese, in order to meet the needs of learning and teaching Chinese in the European context, in line with CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching assessment). My research, a study on IC could be conducted as an attempt to model what these expanded competencies might be, and the model has applications in its focus on the characteristics of CFL in the UK.

2. Research aims and questions

The aim of this research is to identify key areas of IC in learning Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE. It explores the current approaches to teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language with particular reference to culture. The main research question is: *How is intercultural competence* *conceptualised in teaching and learning Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE?*

At the first stage, I conducted a pilot study to obtain the general information about CFL in UK HE (e.g., curriculum, pedagogy) to investigate teachers'/researchers' perspectives towards culture and IC. The data collected were helpful for me to understand the current situation of CFL in UK HE and develop my research questions for the main study. The research question for pilot study was: what are teachers' perspectives on IC in teaching and learning Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE?

3. Methodology

The pilot phase of the study involved interviews with university teachers/researchers, and the main study will be carried out with HE students. Interviews, observations and questionnaires in addition to desk research are the main methods of data collection. The paper reports the findings from the pilot phase based on semi-structured interviews with 6 university teachers and researchers, identified through my personal contacts. Data were analysed using thematic analysis approach.

The interviews were conducted through telephone (and Skype) and face-to-face, according to participants' preference and convenience. In Skype interviews, text chat facility was used in addition to voice in order to clarify my questions. Interview questions were piloted with my peers who are language teachers studying MA courses at the Institute of Education. The interviewees include both native (5 interviewees) and non-native Chinese speakers (1 interviewee). Each interview took about 45 minutes and was recorded by using a digital recorder. The interviews were conducted in Chinese with native Chinese speakers and in English with non-native Chinese speakers. I identified and developed key themes after each interview which helped me to refine my interview schedule for subsequent interviews.

4. Key findings

The pilot study showed that learning Chinese continues to expand in UK universities and schools and this development has brought challenges. Most interviewees were unaware of the relevance of IC; however, the elements of culture and IC are embedded in intercultural dialogue in classrooms.

4.1 Challenges and issues

The major challenge in teaching Chinese as a foreign language identified in the pilot study was, compared with major European languages, there is inadequate understanding of teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the UK, due to the fact that Chinese is still a new subject (Interviewee 1, 2 and 5).

Interviewee 1 indicated that some aspects of curriculum requirements (e.g., the number of lessons) for CFL are not reasonable, as those requirements were developed based on major European languages. For example, writing Chinese characters is difficult and needs more time (Interviewee 6). There is a lack of developed methods to teach Chinese, as current methods introduced are based on teaching other Western languages. Since Chinese is still a new subject, there is a lack of related knowledge for CFL. Interviewee 1 and 3 agreed that Chinese is very different language compared with other European languages. It is complex and carries rich culture and these features make CFL difficult.

Interviewees stated that teachers (Chinese native speakers) may not have a well-developed understanding of learners who are native English speakers (I1 and 3). ‘It took time to understand students’ needs, as I am a Chinese native speaker… but foreigners may not understand Chinese culture properly, so it is difficult for them to teach Chinese’ (I3: 31:91-33:51). The teaching methods applied at school by some teachers (Chinese native speakers) have caused students’ loss of interest (I1 and 6). Furthermore, they also identified the challenge regarding a lack of qualified teachers.

4.2 Intercultural education/learning

Interviewees’ responses indicated the features of intercultural education. According to interviewees 1, 2, 3 and 5, the curriculum for CFL designed combines cognitive and experiential learning. Interviewees described how they teach specific linguistic and cultural knowledge in classrooms, and students also have opportunities to study in China on their second or third year. Both cognitive and experiential learning are highlighted in intercultural education (Hatoss, 2006). However, the one-year abroad study requires teachers to provide further support: help students develop relevant knowledge and skills.

It is multicultural education with diverse students who are from different background (including different nationalities, families and first languages). English is used as a medium of instruction to teach and learn Chinese in the UK (I1, 3, 4 and 6). According to Lo Bianco, Liddicoat and Crozet (1999), multicultural education usually refers to the learning that occurs in a culturally diverse context.

As interviewee 4 said, it is student-centered teaching and learning in classrooms. Intercultural education ‘implies flexibility and reflection and refers to the interactive process in which the learner engages while acquiring specific knowledge’ (Hatoss, 2006: 50). For example, TESOL for international students coming from different cultures can be identified as a multicultural education. However, it is hard to say if TESOL is a form of intercultural education without looking at the teaching and learning process (Hatoss, 2006). Intercultural education involves learners involved in an interactive learning process where they draw on their own cultural diversity while they acquire knowledge. Therefore, interviewees’ responses imply features of intercultural education.

4.3 Teaching Chinese as a foreign language with particular reference to culture

Teachers highlighted the important role of culture in CFL to promote students’ interest and motivation, and influence their emotion. They also concerned with how they develop their teaching methods with particular reference to culture.

Interviewee 3 gave an example of how she taught a Chinese character: 爱 ai, love:

The character: 爱 ai (love), the traditional one is 愛 , has three parts. The first part is ‘爪 zhua’ , it can mean the action ‘catch’, the middle one is ‘心 xin’ (heart) and ‘友 you’ (friend) is underneath. It means that the love is wholehearted emotion and it is mutual. We can see Chinese culture value toward the emotion ‘love’ from the character (I3: 6:50-8:34).

She stated that she not only teach students how to write characters but also how they develop. When students learned the culture behind the characters, they were motivated. She thought teaching the meanings of characters make students more interested in learning the language. Another example is 外国 waiguo and 外婆 waipo (foreign country and maternal grandmother) :

The same character ‘外 wai’ means outside, ‘国 guo’ means country, so ‘外’ and ‘国’ together mean foreign country -- it makes sense. But why does grandmother (‘婆 po’ can mean grandmother) in Chinese contain the meaning of ‘外’ (outside)? In China, if a woman married, she will be outside her family, so her children call her mother 外婆 waipo. It implies the status of women in China (I3: 22:73-22:99).

She said, therefore, students can acquire the knowledge. Furthermore, interviewees stated that they often explain the differences between Chinese and English cultures, so that students were motivated. As interviewee 3 said: ‘Some students thought that learning Chinese is the beginning of understanding Chinese culture’ (3:34-3:39). ‘The differences between China and Western cultures motivate students’ learning’ (3:42-3:48).

‘Students think that it is important to have a Chinese name, and they require a meaningful name… the Chinese names have been the motivation for studies… Students are very interested in how to bargain when they are doing shopping in China…' (I3: 4:49-6:05).

Interviewee 4 agreed that culture is useful for enhancing students' interest. 'For some Level 1 classes, we usually start from introducing the different cultural meanings of the words in Chinese and English: e.g., dragon and red colour… Chinese traditional festival or tradition…' (1:56-2:40).

Interviewee 1 believed that 'language itself contains cultural elements.... The culture learning begins from language, especially, Chinese. Chinese has rich cultural characteristics. So when you are learning Chinese, you are learning the culture' (20:16- 21:13). He also identified that 'in terms of pedagogy, teachers are teaching words with culture … But it lacks a systematic investigation … how to use these methods should be considered again' (24:58-25:33). There is a lack of a syllabus and teaching materials to guide teachers' teaching with reference to culture and IC. Thus, the teaching methods depend on individual teachers and are difficult to manage (Interviewee 6).

4.4 Aspects of intercultural competence identified

Interviews helped me to identify some aspects of IC. First, as stated above, the interest/motivation toward Chinese culture and its importance has been emphasised by interviewees. Interviewee 3 highlighted that students have strong interest toward culture. 'Students lack of interest will cause challenges for teaching and learning Chinese. The interest is the motivation' (I4: 2:11-2:18). 'The language learning is the process of learners' developing their attitudes' (I6: 47:42-47:50).

Second, the importance of practice and communication in language learning is recognised. 'Students need to practice more …' (I3: 18:77-18:79). She stated that language is live and needs practice and communication. Upon returning from their studies in China, students were very different: they were confident and able to manage their language (I3). Interviewee 6 emphasised that: 'it is "tian rang zhi bie" (vastly different)' (40:55). Being able to communicate is one reason why students study Chinese (Interviewee 4): 'most students who learn Chinese plan to work in China…and some others have Chinese colleagues and friends … so they have started to learn Chinese' (4:13-4:37). Furthermore, interviewee 3 highlighted the importance of communications in classrooms. The knowledge learned from communications are more often used and used more correctly by students, comparing what they learned from the textbook. 'Language becomes useful to students when they think it can be used to express themselves/their own ideas' … 'The focus on grammar, to some extent, has bad influences on students' learning and their confidence… Language is a tool of communication' (I3: 12:78-13:51). She is aware of teaching Chinese needs specific pedagogy with reference to culture.

Third, 'we aim to teach students to be an independent leaner' (I2: 8:46-8:51). Interviewee 2 focused on teaching students how to learn and develop students' communication skills in order to help them to be an independent learner. Students are encouraged to use language in the real context (going to China/ or communicating with Chinese people) and learn language independently. Interviewee 5 indicated the significance of critical thinking and the awareness of identity: ‘students need to develop different views with different cultures, and to realise their different identities…’ (13:40-18:12).

4.5 Teachers’ perspectives toward intercultural competence

Most interviewees were unaware of the relevance of IC, much of which is taken-for-granted in teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Interviewee 3 said that she is not familiar with the concept of IC: ‘I am awareness of what it is, but I can’t say what it means’ (28:66-29:41). Interviewee 4 thought the concept of IC has not been identified. Only interviewee 6 stated that he understood IC from two aspects: linguistic (how to use the language according to Chinese culture) and behaviour (how to behave). He gave an example: In the past, students often provided negative feedback on Chinese culture when they came back from China. But now, since teachers explained the differences between Chinese culture and other cultures, students can appreciate the differences. This example emphasises the significance of IC in CFL. However, he thought it is difficult to apply IC by teachers in classrooms.

Most teachers considered the input of cultural knowledge as incentive. Interviewee 4 suggested more activities about culture should be conducted which can help develop students’ interest. There is limited evidence to show interviewees’ specific perspectives on IC. Although, interviewee 6 has showed some opinions on IC, as he has been involved in a related research project, most teachers are not familiar with the concept of IC. It implies the issue with the terminology: intercultural competence. Teachers have conceptions of IC but, are not sure what it means and how it is relevant to their teaching.

However, teachers are mainly familiar with the concept of culture. The construction of culture and elements of IC have been indicated and they are existing in the intercultural dialogue in classrooms. Interviewees’ perspectives on culture and teaching methods indicated the relevance and importance of this study. In this case, the main research phase of my study will be started from classrooms observations, to investigate how the culture is conceptualised in teaching and learning which can be used to help identify relevant elements of IC. Other factors, e.g., students’ learning purpose/expectations and their intercultural communication experience will be also investigated.

5. Implications

This research has implications for teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language, for curriculum development (teaching material and teacher training) and for pedagogy from a cultural perspective in UK HE. The concept of IC for CFL needs to be developed to include cultural features of Chinese. The main study will focus on the construction of culture and relevant dimensions of IC emerging based on the features of Chinese as a foreign language.

The findings from the pilot study have implications for CFL practice as Chinese becoming a global language. IC is an important aspect in CFL. Teachers made cultural content implicit in most language courses. It implies the issue of IC is emerging but under-developed. A clear notion of IC can help develop relevant pedagogy and the curriculum of Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE. It requires an investigation on our conceptualisations of the relationship between language and culture. This in turn will have important implications for an understanding of the skills, attitude and knowledge needed to successfully take part in intercultural communication.

Thus, the issue concerning how to teach a foreign language effectively has been considered from a cultural perspective. It requires the curriculum development of Chinese as a foreign language in UK HE, especially the development of teaching material (e.g., textbook) and teacher training, in order to provide support for developing teachers' knowledge of pedagogy from a cultural perspective. For example, the criteria for selecting cultural contents and culture-and-language learning tasks, as well as ways to scaffold the IC learning process, should be emphasised.

In addition, the findings have implications for my main research. Conducting classroom observations to investigate how 'culture' is constructed and how the elements of IC are embedded will be the focus of the next pilot study. Classroom observations will help explore how 'cultural aspects' are embedded in the classrooms, and to examine the relevant aspects of IC. The observations will also be combined with interviewing (before and after observations) teachers and students to explore culture-related factors shaping the course and nature of CFL. Furthermore, investigating other variables, for example, students' learning purpose/expectations and intercultural communication experience/encounters. The teaching and learning processes for developing IC is complementary and mutual assistance. It implies that how students understand culture and IC through learning a foreign language.

In order to investigate how culture is constructed through classroom observations, it is necessary to consider what aspects can be considered as culture related in foreign language teaching and learning. The findings have indicated three categories: the link between Chinese characters and culture; the differences between Chinese and English cultures; manifestation of cultural aspects in teaching and learning process. These categories will help me observe cultural aspects which are embedded in the classrooms. The findings also suggested that teachers perceive that students are aware of the differences between their native languages and the foreign language that they learn. Therefore, to examine whether students perceive the foreign language learning and communication process as a cultural process will help me investigate students' CA in order to identify related aspects of IC.

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TAPs Process Research, a Mixed Method or experimental Research?

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Abstract

TAPs as the standard data elicitation method in the study of translation process have attracted attention among translation scholars and researchers since its introduction in 1980s. Insightful results have been obtained via application of this method, whether loosely or rigorously, whether the sample size is large or small, whether research is in-depth or shallow. However, not so many researchers are concerned about the nature of process research and the relations between qualitative and quantitative data. This paper deals with this issue from a perspective of social science research and aims to show more possibilities in collecting qualitative and quantitative data. A pilot qualitative research of translator's management style has indicated that advanced performers tend to monitor the translation process, while non-advanced performers have a tendency of managing the translation. A translator's management style is decided by his/her assessment of the difficult levels of the translation task.

Key words: mixed method, TAPs, translation management

1. Introduction

Qualitative research is concerned with words rather than numbers. Epistemologically, qualitative research is interpretive while quantitative research is exploratory (Bryman, 2008). However, 'every research tool or procedure is inextricably embedded in commitments to particular versions of the world and to knowing that world'. (Hughes, 1990:11, cited in Bryman, 2008) The purpose of conducting research on translation process is to understand the 'black box' in human mind, to explain the nature of translation activities and to inform translation teaching and training.

Then, the translation research methodology 'turn' –to borrow Snell-Hornby's term (2006)- has happened in mid 1980s when Ericsson and Simon (1980) has published their seminal work *Verbal reports as data*. However, the pathway of think-aloud protocols (TAPs) has never been smooth. One of the strongest criticisms was from Nisbett and Wilson (1977) who believed that consciousness does not reflect the processes but only the products of mental processes. They claimed that verbal reports cannot reveal higher order mental processes such as evaluation, judgement, problem-solving and the initiation of behaviour. Usually, verbal reports can only explain some basic perceptions and memory.

However, translation researchers believed that 'even if verbal reports are necessarily incomplete and do not reveal everything, what they do reveal is important' (Kiraly, 1995: 41). Thereafter, the process research has seen its progression of exploration, development and maturity in the last 25 years (Zheng, 2012). Its tendency to experimental research is very strong; it applies various types of computer software such as Translog, Proxy, Camtasia and eye-tracking to triangulate with data obtained through the most arguably used traditional data elicitation method-TAPs (Hurtado Albir and Alves, 2009).

As a standard method, TAPs have produced some fruitful insights into the mental translation processes (Lörscher, 1989, cited in Li, 2004); e.g. Kiraly's (1995) social and cognitive process model, Jakobsen's (2002) orientation-drafting-revision model, Tirkkonen-Condit's (2005) monitor model, Englund Dimitrova (2005) and Gerloff's (1986) explicitation, and text-processing strategies, PACTE's (2011) translation competence, to name but a few. Others have developed very useful data analysis coding schemes, for example, the formalized categories of analysis (Lörscher, 1986, 1996, 2005), prospective and retrospective problem indicators (Krings, 1986), and protocol diagrams (Kiraly, 1995).

The achievement that has so far made in this field is not immune from criticisms and retrospection. Some concluded that TAPs are not appropriate for Asian students; because of much less data collected as their counterparts non-Asian students (Li and Cheng, 2007). Jââskelâinen (2011) called on researchers to go back to basics and to look at the issues of validity and reliability of verbal report data. Hansen (2003) expressed her concerns about researchers' tendency of dividing the phenomena of translation into sections and investigating them under controlled experimental conditions. Some other concerns are small data samples and the unnatural test environment for the process research (Bernardini, 2001; Li, 2004; Hurtado Albir and Alves, 2009; Jââskelâinen, 2011).

An agreement has been reached among researchers that the TAPs data fall under the category of qualitative research (Gerloff, 1986; Kiraly, 1995; Li, 2004) and the computer software generated data are quantitative (Hansen, 2003). 'Triangulation' as the most powerful word frequently appeared in research papers indicated that mixed method is applying in the process research. However, the relations between the TAPs data and the computer generated data are not very clear.

What do we triangulate- research methods, sources, analysts, theories or perspectives? Is the quantitative data used to converge, to corroborate and to correspond the quantitative data? Can we use this mixed approach to complement, to develop, to initiate and to expand both qualitative and quantitative data? Is it legitimate for us to confine ourselves to triangulation only without considering other possibilities to expand our horizon in the process research?

This paper will present a pilot post-interview study to show the feasibility of a mixed method research design.

2. Methodology

Translation is a social activity in which translator plays an active part in the particular context related to the translation activity (Kiraly, 1995). The success of communication depends much on the translation ability of the translator and his/her environmental factors which define his/her translation activity. As a social phenomenon, translation processes 'comprise a complex network of factors, such as assumptions, decisions, feelings, thoughts, impressions and doubts' (Hansen, 2003:25). Therefore, the process of translation is defined as 'a complex cognitive process which has an interactive and non-linear nature, encompasses controlled and uncontrolled processes, and requires processes of problem-solving, decision-making and the use of strategies' (Hurtado Albir and Alves, 2009: 63).

To approach the hidden meaning or essence of the translation processes, the dialogue between person and world must be established and the human behaviour must be observed (Merleau-Ponty, 1962). The hidden meaning or essence here means the patterns or formula which sum up the unique manner of translation behaviour and the meaning of translation processes can be understood through the constant process of idealization and formalization, i.e. through the removal of limits from researchers and approximation to a real complex phenomenon (Husserl, 1978) and through regressive inquiry and immanent reflection, thus 'the *universal* structures of *subjective* orientation in the world, not the *general* features of the *objective* world' is described (Luckmann, 1978:9, emphasis in original).

Evered and Louis (1981) proposed two types of inquiry in research: i.e. inquiry from the outside and inquiry from the inside. The former entails that the researcher as an onlooker may use some tools or instruments to look in from the outside at a phenomenon, while the latter means that the researcher becomes an insider in real situations. As an onlooker, the researcher uses the a priori knowledge derived either from personal experience or from theoretical formulation to guide the inquiry or to reveal what is general to all organizations. As an insider, the researcher, with no presuppositions, understands and identifies features through dialogue with others or through direct experiential contact with the organization. The shortcomings of each role can be overcome by applications of inquiry from both the inside and the outside (Bryman 1988; Brewer and Hunter 1989; Mertens 2005).

Thus, it is suggested that using several methods to reveal multiple aspects of a single phenomenon is where the research is rooted. A major assumption underpinning the research is that sociological research is to understand, describe and explain the complexity of human behaviour from various perspectives and by using different methods to answer particular types of research questions (Morse 2003). More specifically, mixed methods in this research is the strategy to combine qualitative and quantitative methods for the purpose of using the results of one method to inform and illustrate the other method (Bryman, 1988; Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989).

3. Research design

This research project believes that translation process is a dynamic, interactive and non-linear process. Uncertainty management is a controlled and non-automatic process, presented either verbally or non-verbally. In this process, translators play an active role in communications between the ST and the TT. It is translation competence and translator's self concept which determine the success or failure of uncertainty management, namely the result of interaction between the cognitive process dimension and the knowledge dimension. The cognitive process dimension involves information retrieval both linguistically and non-linguistically, problem-solving and decision making. The knowledge dimension consists of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge stored in translator's short-term and long-term memories. This research project aims to find out managerial style differences between advanced performers and non-advanced performers in translation. The theoretical framework of this research is shown in Figure 1.

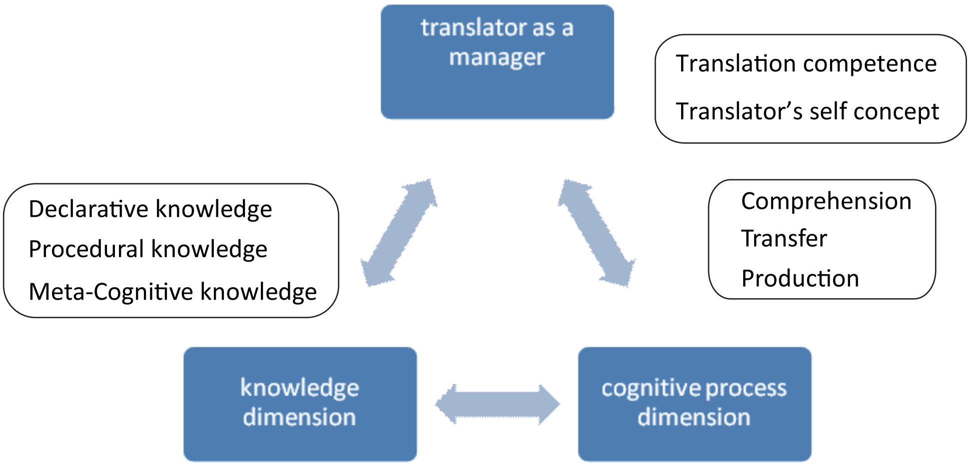

Figure 1. The theoretical framework of this research

This research is designed to have three phases:

- Phase I a pilot post-test interview,
- Phase II developing and piloting questionnaires and
- Phase III quantitative data collect and analysis.

In the first phase, 18 participants were purposefully selected from translation post graduates and English language teachers. They were asked to do a translation of 259 words of an English text adapted from an article 'Not quite across Rubicon' (published at Economist on 25 January 1999).

The text has been selected because of its 'richness', which is reflected on its use of various rhetorical devices such as metaphorical expressions, irony, and so on. These devices have posed problems and difficulties in translation as the text presents a wide semantic gap between literal and pragmatic meaning. The indirect meaning of those devices would force readers to constantly modify their interpretations (Dancette, 1997). Each 'richness' in a text is a 'rich point', where process researchers have to consider when selecting a text. Rich Points are identified with linguistic problems, textual problems, extralinguistic problems, problems of intentionality and problems relating to translator's world (PACTE, 2011). The selected text contains five metaphors (e.g. across the Rubicon, stands up, as if Tony Blair were some Leonid Brezhnev uttering a cryptic speech, train newspapers, moved closer to monetary union), nine culture specific terms (e.g. the House of Commons, the euro, Europe's new currency, Gordon Brown, Tony Blair, Leonid Brezhnev, Supreme Soviet, Kremlinologists, Hansard) and five words which express the writer's intention and attitude (e.g. perfectly plainly, loyal chancellor, portentous title, dull, ineffable fashion).

After a pilot study, 21 interview questions were developed in reference to Jones' (2007) research on poetry translation processes. The questions are related to translation knowledge, translation strategies, philosophy and beliefs, personal interests, translator's style and other aspects.

Each participant was provided with dictionaries, computer, internet access, pen, and paper. They were asked to translate the selected English text into Chinese, their mother tongue with no time limits. An interview was conducted right after the completion of the translation task. Each interview lasted about 30-45 minutes. The interviews were transcribed by researcher's assistants and double checked among them. Thematic analysis were conducted to the research data with application of Nvivo 9 software. Research ethics were closely observed during this pilot study.

Phase I project has now been finished and Phase II and III are undergoing at the moment.

4. Data analysis

Before embarking thematic analysis to the interview data, participants' written translations have been marked by two experienced university teachers. The CTTIC marking criteria was applied to each piece of translation. First independent marks were obtained, then, the two markers had to agree on a final mark if the difference between the two marks for one piece of translation were less than 15%. Otherwise, the translation in question had to be remarked. Thus, the 18 participants were divided into two groups: Advanced Performers (> 70%) and Non-advanced Performers (<69%). The rationale behind the division is that translation quality is not necessarily related to professional or novice translators (Kiraly, 1995), thus advanced and non-advanced performers were used in this research. The details of the two groups are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 the groups of participants

	Advanced Performers (AD)	Non-Advanced Performers (NAD)
Foreign language teachers	5	4
Translation graduates	4	5

To ensure that the data analysis was rigorous and the coding process was conducted by two coders: the researcher who knows about the research and a layman who knows little about the research. First, ten good interviews were chosen and printed out for microscopic coding. Each transcript was reviewed at least 8 times with each line coded manually. This reading and coding process was to explore common patterns in the interview data. The techniques of questioning, 'far-out' comparisons, free association, checking conditions, strategies and consequences, shifting focus were used when they were appropriate to the text.

During this process, the old codes decayed and the new ones emerged. To ensure that the individual codes are conceptually related to the appropriate analytic context and rooted in relevant empirical material, categories are generated through 1) inferences from the data; 2) initial or emergent research questions; 3) substantive, policy and theoretical issues; and 4) imagination, intuition and previous knowledge. The interplay between the data and the researcher was in fact a process of abstraction from raw data level, to initial coding level, to conceptual level and to statements level. Table 2 is a sample coding list.

Table 2. A sample coding list

Theme 1

- *Label*- attention focus [AF]
- *Definition*-focal point of translation on words, logical relations, background knowledge, message etc.
- *Indicators*-coded when the participant says, 'I focus on choice of words.'
- *Differentiation*-If the participant says, 'I am considering how to say in Chinese', this is coded as ***translation norms/principles [TN]***.

Coding is not a once for all process. After each coding, the coded passages were read and reread for several times against the coding list to see whether there was a mismatch between the code and the coded passage. A passage may be uncoded if it was found that the passage did not match with the code. Then, referring back to the original transcript, the uncoded passage may be recoded with a different code or discarded without coding at all. The backward and forward coding procedure was to ensure the reliability of each coding and to avoid any theory forcing to the data.

The coding list generated through a line-by-line analysis was in fact a pretty long list. Some codes were larger and some were smaller. Some were descriptive and some were interpretive. Looking for repetitions is one of the easiest ways of identifying themes. Then the links between each theme was identified.

5. Results and discussions

The major themes under comprehension include contrastive analysis between the SL and the TL [CA], information sourcing [IS], comprehension problems and issues [CPI], questioning [QST], reading and analysis [RA].

Non-advanced performers did not do any contrastive studies between the SL and the TT, however, Advanced performers compared the linguistic and cultural differences between English and Chinese.

我觉得它是一个非常客观的评价，它也不站在、它也不倾向于哪一方，这是这个 economists 经济学人吧，我觉得它可能有杂志，它自己的立场，它就在这方面看的话，对于英国整个来说，影响是怎么样的，它不会倾向于政治上有什么倾向和色彩，不像就是《人民日报》那样 [AD 2]。

I feel that this is an objective comment. The journal is neutral and does not favor one side or the other. Is the journal called *Economist*? I feel that the journal has, has its own political stand. Unlike *Peopl*e'*s Daily*, it does not have its own political orientation but it looks at the impact of this issue on the UK [my translation].

In terms of information sourcing, tools and sources were used in their translation work; however, the NADs tended to use what is available to them such as dictionaries and encyclopaedia. Apart from the tools and sources used by the NADs, the ADs used model text, searched for secondary sources and tended to ask help from experts, layman or peer friend. Both groups had the similar type of problems and issues in comprehension. They included culture specific terms, metaphors, syntactic structures of long and complex sentences, underlying meanings of a phrase, writer's intention.

有些句子理解的时候，感觉还是挺费劲的。特别是长句子，感觉不是很明白，比如说这个媒体和这个，媒体和这个，这些政界，他们的关系是什么样的，媒体如果从在政府的字里行间，发言里，发言里说的话里面能感觉，感觉到什么，这个我就不是很明白。就是，就是还有点疑问 [NAD6]。

I had difficulties in understanding some sentences, especially the long ones. I feel I cannot understand them, for example, what are the relations between the media and the, the media and the politics? I cannot understand what the media can get something from the lines of government's speech, what the government says. Yes, I still have some problems here [my translation].

It is obvious that both groups applied the technique of questioning to clarify the meaning of the English text. This questioning was a process to suspect one's initial understanding of a word, to check the logical relations between different events, to decide if the technique of information sourcing is needed when something is strange to one's knowledge of both the ST and the conventions of the TT. The questioning process happened before a final translation decision was made. For both groups, reading and analysis were closely connected. The purposes of reading and analysis were to understand the message of the ST, to focus on linguistic and pragmatic issues in the text.

The process of transfer consisted of decision making [DMK], evaluation [EVA], register analysis [REG] and translation difficulties [TDF]. This process was about solving translation problems and difficulties, making judgements based on criteria and standards, determining parts-whole relations and rhetorical purpose, identifying hidden meanings, unstated assumptions, comprehending relationships among ideas, recognizing explicit and implicit communication web in the ST and making translation decisions. This is where big gaps between the two groups were found in this research.

Only 1 participant in the NAD group evaluated his translation, whereas 6 in the AD group evaluated their translations. The use of evaluation in the translation was to decide an appropriate translation approach, i.e. free translation or literal translation for words or phrases, to confirm translation decisions or to modify a translation according to the context and conventions of the TT. During this process, the translation difficulties were how to find an equivalent TL word, if a word or phrase should be translated literally or freely, what translation techniques should be employed, e.g. the application of modulation. In this case, the norms and principles in the mind of both groups were the conventions of Target Text.

Only 1 participant in the NAD group did not do register analysis to the ST; however, all the participants in the AD group did it.

我觉得这个地方有一个 perfectly，后面有一个 plainly，它有一种有点‘难以置信’或者它就是说一个首相这样场合讲了这样一番话，他竟然说的时候那个口气，一个 perfect 本来是一个极致、好的那个意思，但偏偏后面加了一个 plain, 这个地方我觉得这个地方是难以置信或者是不太赞同的味道在里头 [AD4]。

I think here it has a word ‘perfectly’, which is followed by ‘plainly’. The word has a meaning of ‘unbelievable’ or, the prime minister made a speech in this occasion but his tones were strange. In fact, ‘perfect’ means ‘extremely good’ but it is followed by ‘plain’. Here I think it has a meaning of ‘unbelievable’ or a sense of disagreement [my translation].

The theme of decision making has four subthemes which are indecisive decisions [INDCS], decisions on organization [DCSO], decisions on dialects [DCSD] and decisions on translation manipulation DCSM]. Indecisive decisions are about doubts and uncertainties in their translation solutions; the AD group were more uncertain about their translations; however, the NAD group were less concerned about it. Both groups basically followed the structure of the ST but with some minor changes in wording. When asked if it was good to use local dialect in translation, both groups agreed that dialects could be very interesting and sometimes exciting but its use should take one’s readership into considerations. Obviously, using local dialects in this translation task was not a wise decision because the English text was very formal in style. On the contrary, the NAD group had more power to manipulate their translations and the AD group had less power to do so. Manipulation happened when the meaning of a word could not be identified, when the participant thought a word was not important in the TT context, and when the participant thought the content of the ST went against his/her own moral standards.

首先我标题也没有理解。就是那个，然后到后面有一些个别单词的意思，不是很确定，而且，它还有提到，就是、就是英国，就是对苏联和苏联领导人的这种态度，我是推测他们是否定态度，但是不是很肯定。只是自己想的，就是有很多不确定的点 [NAD5]。

First, I did not understand the title. I was not sure about the meaning of some words in the last few sentences. It also talks about England, its attitude towards Soviet Union and its leaders. I suspected that it was a negative attitude, but I am not certain about. This is only my own thought but I have so many doubts which I am not sure of [my translation].

基本上，按原文，大的，就是大的按原文，小的地方就是因为语言的问题作一个小的调整 [AD1]。

Basically, I followed the original text. The general structure is the same with the original but there are some minor modifications in a number of places. This is because of language difference [my translation].

我觉得，他因为是一篇英国的报道，他可能是，就是偏向于英国的、就是维护英国政府的形象，而且，它这种感觉，因为中国也是社会主义国家，它们这种，反而，对社会主义国家有偏见，歧视的这种，所以，这块的翻译，嗯，我感觉，嗯，如果说是要在中国发表的话，我可能有的地方我不会去翻 [NAD5]。

I think, because this is a report about Britain, it is possible that it is in favour of the British, that is to protect the image of the British government. Moreover, this feeling, because China is a socialist country, their biases or discrimination to socialist country. So for those sentences, I feel, ern, if the translation is going to be published in China, I will not translate some sentences [my translation].

The subthemes of strategic planning [STP], synthesizing [SNTH], revision and editing [RVE] and quality assessment [QAS] emerged from the data under the theme of production [PDT]. Because the difficult levels of the ST, it seemed that some participants from both groups had applied the strategy of leaving the most difficult part of translation, in this case, the title not translated until the very end of the translation task. The reason of taking this strategy was to get the essential meaning of the text and then to decide if the title could be translated freely or literally. Synthesizing is the act of producing translator's own synthesis of information or material to form a new whole. It includes deep understanding that goes beyond basic understanding, using old ideas to create new ones. Both groups had applied the techniques of synthesis, combination, integration and modification in their translations. As could be expected, both groups revised and edited their translation a number of times and also stated that they usually did not begin their editing work before their short memory disappeared. The time of leaving their work before editing varied tremendously from a number of hours to 3 months; however, the overriding principle was time. If they were not given any time to edit their work, post-editing did not happen and in this case, they usually revised their translation in the translation process. However, if they had plenty of time, they would obviously put their translations untouched for a longer period of time. It is interesting to note that the AD group would like to seek advice from experts, laymen and friends; however, the NAD group tended not to ask help from laymen. The obvious reasons were:

应该会找一个懂的人，因为我觉得如果他不懂的话，我从他那儿得不到什么有用的或者有帮助的这样一些信息 [NAD4]。

I will find someone who knows English, because I feel I cannot get anything useful or useful information from this person if he does not know my area. [my translation]

And one even showed low esteem.

如果对英语不怎么懂的，不找他。信他还不如信我自己 ![NAD6]

I will not get help from a person who does not know English. I would rather believe myself but not this man!

Each interviewee had their own evaluation on their translation work and almost everybody was not happy about their translation. A detailed analysis of the data has shown that the reasons for this were the interviewee's clear understanding of their weaknesses in translation in general and also the correctness in their mind. However, the NAD group expressed their concerns over lack of abilities to have a correct understanding of the ST.

The main themes under the knowledge dimension are declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge. Declarative knowledge includes background knowledge, culture knowledge, subject knowledge, translation principles. Procedural knowledge covers past experience in translation, translation stages, translation learning. Meta-cognitive knowledge includes two subthemes cognitive strategies and self-knowledge. The former includes attention focus, guess work and association, mind translation, translation constraints. The latter includes personal habit and interest.

To see the differences between the two groups, the chi-square tests were conducted in the SPSS by keying the instances of all the themes emerged from the interview data. Their results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The Chi-square tests results

Themes	AD group (9)	NAD group (9)	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Direct translation	7	4	.002**
Free translation	2	8	.001**
Register analysis	9	1	.000**
Indecisive decisions	7	3	.002**
Translation learning	0	5	.009**
Translation procedure	5	8	.001**
Evaluation	6	1	.010**
Manipulation	1	5	.026*
Difficulties	6	9	.000**
Past experience	9	4	.000**

Note: $*p < .05$ $**p < .01$

Table 3 has provided a clear picture between the AD and NAD groups; the AD group tended to apply correct translation approach to the translation task, their task analysis was global oriented, they had more questions about their translation and used higher level of thinking such as evaluation, synthesizing in their translation in the translation procedures but they had a tendency not to manipulate their translations. Past experience in translation contributed to their translation success. Whereas, the NAD group did not apply a correct translation approach and tended to be local-oriented. A lower level of thinking such as inferences and associations were frequently used. They usually did not report so much problems and difficulties because they usually struggled with understanding of the ST. Difficulties in understanding also led to a tendency of manipulating the translation and looking for external help, for example, from experts. They considered doing a translation task as a learning process.

The above analysis has shown that the AD group has the management style of monitoring, while the NAD group has a management style of managing. That means the management style of the two groups may fluctuate between one end of a continuum being monitoring a translation situation (or general detachment) to the other which caters for managing (Hatim and Munday, 2004).

6. Conclusion

The present research has expounded the management style of the advanced performers and non-advanced performers. The communications or interactions between the translator as a manager, cognitive process dimension and knowledge dimension are initiated once a particular translation task is given to a translator. If the translator knows that the translation task is within his/her ability, a monitoring management style will be presented throughout the translation process. In this case, correct decisions tend to be made, e.g. global-oriented comprehension with principles and strategies compatible to translation problems. On the contrary, if the translation task is beyond one's ability, a managing style will be presented. The primary goal is to get the translation done. Comprehension is local-oriented with principles and strategies incompatible to local decisions. They tend to consider the translation task as a process of translation learning; thus reference material and expert help is important. Naturally, they are not willing to give their work to laymen for advice because they are unable to learn anything from them. This conclusion is very much in line with previous research by using TAPs data collection method (c.f. Tikkonen-Condit, 2005 and many others).

Methodologically, this means that a mixed method approach to translation process is not only possible but also can lead to some very interesting research. If, however, the horizon of process research is not broadened, the process research will definitely face its inherited problems of small samples and unnaturally environment of research (c.f. Li, 2004; Jââskelâinen, 2011). Since the early 1980s, the increase of mixed method in various research has seen a bright future because it 'allow[s] the various strengths to be capitalized upon and the weaknesses offset somewhat.' (Bryman, 2008:603).

Only part of the research project has been reported here, more is going to be done in the foreseeable future, i.e. to apply quantitative questionnaire research to the process studies. This does not mean that the research is flawless; the issues of reliability and validity are still concerns for qualitative research. There are well established ways of dealing with this issue in the research paradigm.

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The role of students in a power sharing context: A study of the development of a Chinese teacher's identity

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Abstract

The study reported here introduced an action research project on the reconstruction of different aspects of a Chinese classroom teacher's identity as a teacher. The project was carried out over a period of three years. Shared classroom power relations were central to this research project. They were represented by the collaboration between the teacher and students, and between students. As an essential component of the project, students carried out both peer teaching and made on-going reflection on the teacher's teaching. Data sources included student weekly reflective journals and final group reports. The authors hoped to explore the teacher's professional development and propose the possibility to optimise other Chinese teachers' contribution to language classes in collaboration with their students.

Keywords: Shared classroom power relations, Peer Teaching, Teacher Identity, Action Research

1. Introduction

Studies (周小兵 2007; 刘骏 2009; 陆俭明 2011) show that Chinese language teacher education aims to provide student-teachers with knowledge of teaching Chinese and enhance their teaching skills under the supervision of experts in the field. However, little research to date has focused on how Chinese classroom teachers can develop their professional identities by benefiting from their students. The current study which exclusively concentrates on the role of students in a classroom power sharing context addresses this gap. This study was carried out as an action research project over the period of three years from 2009 to 2011.

2. Literature review

2.1 Shared classroom power relations

Shared classroom power relations are referred to as the mutual and negotiating relationship between teachers and students (Knowles, 1980), and a joint responsibility for classroom teaching and learning, taken by both the teacher and students (Manke, 1997). SCPRs tend to benefit both students and the teacher (Cranton, 2006; Richards, 2008). In terms of the impact of SCPRs on students, Humphreys (2012) argues that SCPRs are a participative-style of teaching which promotes collaborative learning and student decision making and allows students to participate in their own learning. In terms of the impact on the teacher, Golish and Olson claim that “research on students’ power can further instructors’ knowledge of their teaching… Students’ power may be a particularly salient issue to college teachers” (2000: 294). Cornelius and Herrenkohl theorise that SCPRs should be based on “encouraging active participation in learning and creating classroom environments where all voices can be heard” (2004: 468). Hirschy and Wilson specify ways of implementing SCPRs. According to them, SCPRs “can be discerned by observing interaction patterns between the instructor and students and among student peers” (2002: 87). PT gives students a share of power in their learning process. When students conduct PT, they are encouraged to be active participants in learning. At the same time, Peer teaching (PT) should allow the teacher to see different ways of teaching, conducted by students.

2.2 Identity as a teacher

Concern with teacher identity emerged in the late 1980s (Erickson et al., 2011). Teacher identity contains four major components. First, it is a dynamic and on-going process, and combines parts of teachers' past experience with pieces of their present experience (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Second, the development of Teacher identity can "secure teachers' commitment to their work and adherence to professional norms" (Hammerness et al., 2005: 383–384). Third, Teacher identity is social value oriented. It "entails the making sense and (re)interpretation of one's own values and experiences" (Flores & Day, 2006: 220) and helps teachers to "use, justify, explain and make sense of themselves in relation to other people, and to the contexts in which they operate" (Maclure, 1993: 287). Anspal et al acknowledge that "identity involves both the person and the context in which the individual functions" (2012: 198). Fourthly, reflection is a powerful way for teachers to develop their identities. Anspal et al state that "providing opportunities for reflection in teacher education is one of the most important tasks in supporting the development of teacher identity" (2012: 199). Beauchamp and Thomas argue that reflection helps teachers to "become more in tune with their sense of self and with a deep understanding of how this self fits into a larger context which involves others" (2009: 182).

SCPRs which are represented by PT in this cyclical context are central to the current study. They enable the classroom teacher to conduct teaching, thinking and self-development. This professional progression indicates how the teacher's Teacher identity is reshaped. The authors of this study hope to explore how students' PT and their reflective feedback on the Chinese classroom teacher's teaching can impact the teacher's understandings of teacher attitude, classroom teaching and self-reflection on teaching.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research method and research questions

The concept of action research has been embraced by many researchers from many different disciplines since its emergence as a research methodology. As a result, it has been defined in a variety of ways. All definitions, however, include certain principles to guide the conduct of action research (Koshy, 2010; McNiff & Whitehead, 2011). The following four principles emerge from a careful examination of definitions of AR: two dimensions as action and research, cyclical nature, contextualisation and values base. The following research questions guide this study:

- What impact can students have on their classroom teacher's practice?
- Can the classroom teacher's professional identity be reshaped by this impact?

3.2 Course description

The beginners' Chinese course in this study took place at the School of Education, Trinity College Dublin for five to seven weeks per year for three cycles from 2009 to 2011. There were fifteen students in both 2009 and 2010, sixteen students in 2011. In cycle 1, PT accounted for about 80% of classroom activities. PT groups in turn covered new learning content and the native Chinese teacher provided a summary of the new content. When they prepared for their teaching, the teacher provided necessary facilitation. There was a reduction in the proportion of PT in 2010 in response to student feedback in terms of students' linguistic and pronunciation competences. The teacher taught the new content while PT groups in turn covered PT in the form of revision at the beginning of each lesson. PT in 2010 and 2011 accounted for about 20% of classroom activities. The teacher also provided facilitation to PT groups when they were preparing for PT. Students of Chinese were required to write weekly journals and final group reports which recorded their learning experiences and their comments on the classroom teacher's teaching. Both the journals and reports provided the data for this study.

3.3 Ethical issues

As in any other type of research, action research requires that its researchers should respect and protect the researched (Nolen & Putten, 2007; Pine, 2009; Campbell & Groundwater-Smith, 2010). In the current project, participants all gave their informed consent. Their data were treated confidentially, and presented anonymously and in a coded format. When analysing the data, the authors tried all possible means to ensure that they had minimised any risks, discomfort that might occur to student-teachers. A thematic analysis of the data was conducted. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no regulations had been violated during the process of the project.

4. Findings

Each of the three cycles of the action research project was informed by the classroom teacher's considered reflection on the outcomes and data from the previous cycle.

As mentioned in 3.2, students led the classroom teaching activities in cycle 1. Their reflective journals and group reports helped the classroom teacher to observe their teaching activities.

The classroom teacher's self-participation in cycle 1 helped him to realise that his positive attitude towards students was welcomed. In cycle 2, the classroom teacher took over the task of teaching the new content in response to students' feedback in terms of their lack of linguistic and pronunciation competences. And students conducted PT in the form of peer revision at the beginning of each lesson. Overall, the revised course structure was hailed by students. However, some students also reported that the teacher would need to lessen the amount of teaching content, clarify learning objectives, increase classroom repetition and decrease the use of target language. The teacher adjusted certain teaching habits in cycle 3. As a result of the connections and negotiations between cycle 3 and previous two cycles, the classroom teacher arrived to the classroom in a more mature way.

4.1 Teacher attitude

Attitudes are often considered as precursors to behaviour, and research has revealed that teachers with more positive attitudes towards their students are more likely to modify and adjust their instruction and curriculum to meet the needs of individual students with a range of abilities (Swain et al., 2012). In this study, positive attitude was an advantageous feature of the teacher. The research cycles showed how he was reminded of this by his students and how he maintained and reinforced this feature. In cycle 1, some students noticed the teacher' positive attitude towards the Chinese course and pointed out its positive impact on their learning.

His attitude in the classroom was very refreshing. His positive, friendly attitude was present every week and this certainly had an effect on the classes learning. He made the class feel at ease and never apprehensive to ask a question. (G3: 2009) (Note 1)

Positive feedback in cycle 1 encouraged the classroom teacher to continue to do the same in cycle 2. As one student put it, the teacher "seems really nice and is patient with us and seems to enjoy teaching us which definitely contributes to a nice learning atmosphere" (AN, 2010: 1) (Note 2). The classroom teacher's encouraging manner created a positive learning feeling for students. It is represented by this quote: "It is also very encouraging to be praised by (the teacher) when I get something right" (VA, 2010: 4). The classroom teacher continued to receive positive feedback about his positive attitude from students in cycle 3. As a student pointed out, "(the teacher's) enthusiasm, good nature and positive attitude was, as always, important in creating a good atmosphere" (SN, 2011: 4). Data also showed that the teacher's positive attitude had an impact on students' affective factors. When a

ST felt that she did not study enough, she said “the teacher is so nice … and I feel guilty because I’m not spending as much time as I should be” (MLA, 2011: 3). Another student considered the classroom teacher’s positive attitude as a momentum for his study by saying “I wanted to do (PT) well for him as much as myself after the meeting as I could see his enthusiasm for the subject as well as his desire to help us” (JN, 2011: 4).

4.2 Classroom teaching

The reading of student journals and reports in cycle 1 made the teacher aware of both the positive and negative sides of PT, conducted by students. The positive side included teaching approach, teaching techniques, lesson delivery and the used of target language. The most notable facet was that students as peer teachers managed to make their teaching content relevant to their peers’ lives. The following quote is representative of this claim. “They (the peer teachers) taught a very cohesive and relevant class. I felt that I was going to leave the room being able to DO something, which is very empowering” (OA, 2009: 3). Student teachers used different teaching techniques to support their implementation of PT. These techniques mainly included the suitable use of props, games, worksheets and powerpoint presentation. The following quote indicates how well some students manipulated their teaching techniques. “There was a game with an oversized dice with weather pictures on it, an individual worksheet and a word search. They were fun and engaging.” (JE, 2009: 6). Since the advent of the communicative approach to language teaching, teachers of modern languages have been encouraged to increase the amount of target language in their classrooms (Neil et al., 1999). Target language was used in this context by many students as peer teachers, and accepted and praised by their peers. One student states that “LA and KY did a fantastic job and they managed to do it all through the target language which is very commendable” (EH, 2009: 2). In this cycle, two major negative points on PT as peer-teachers were a few students’ teaching pace and teaching amount. Teaching pace was mainly thought of being too fast as one student pointed out that “the pace of the class is too fast for me. I would prefer to learn fewer words and expressions, and go over them again and again” (MY, 2009: 4). The inappropriate amount of teaching content was realised by another student who said “I came out of class feeling quite overwhelmed as I thought there was too much information for me to take in and not enough time to assimilate it all” (KY, 2009: 3).

In cycle 2, the teacher took into consideration everything he had experienced in cycle 1. Relevance of teaching content to students’ lives was his focus. And his effort was appreciated by students. “The content we used for the dialogues were always relevant to our personal lives” (G2: 2010). The teacher tried to implement various and suitable activities in this cycle in order to make language learning more interesting and meaningful. His endeavour maintained students' interest. The following quote is representative of students' general response. "I found the matching exercise (for countries and their capitals) particularly good as sufficient time was afforded for me to work through the problems and in most cases arrive at a solution. It was also fun" (JN, 2011: 2). However, students would have wanted to see more a greater variety of activities/exercises (G3: 2010), less use of target language (VA, 2010: 2), more explicit of learning objectives (G5: 2010), less vocabulary (G1: 2010), a stronger emphasis on Chinese culture (G1: 2010) and, more repetition and recycling of language (G1, G4: 2010).

In response to students' feedback in cycle 2, the classroom teacher made certain adjustment to his teaching. Regarding the learning objectives, one ST put it, "(the classroom teacher) had given us clear objectives at the beginning" (MIA, 2011: 1). Classroom repetition was increased in this cycle and played an important role in helping students to learn. In this regard, a ST confirmed that "We use a lot of repetition in Chinese class which I find really helpful" (YE, 2011: 4). In cycle 3, target language continued to be widely used in the classroom, but accompanied by English occasionally. A general feedback revealed that most students liked this way of using target language. The following quote explains the advantage of the major use of target language in the classroom. "Mr. Liu balanced the two languages in a way that really suited his "audience" (FA, 2011: 1). Students learnt Chinese language through a cultural environment. This arrangement was mainly actualised through classroom activities, including games, worksheets, video and etc. The outcomes of learning language with culture were treated by most students as a success which was referred to by the following quote. "The activity with the peanuts and chopsticks was a great idea! It gave us a few minutes of fun to break up the lesson and let us digest what we had learned before moving on. The task itself was culturally relevant so not a waste of time." (GN, 2011: 4).

4.3. Reflection on action

In this research project, the classroom teacher reflected on his teaching during the teaching process. This approach echoed Schön's (1987) reflection-on-action. Overall, he experienced a transformation from being an apprentice (Lortie, 1975) to a matured teacher by thinking reflectively and adjusting classroom activities. When he began teaching Chinese, he was deeply influenced by his own lectures. As he stated, when he saw his (evening) students drop out, he felt embarrassed. But, on the other hand, he "began to think (maybe for the first time) what the reason for the failure was" (Quoted from Methodology chapter for PhD transfer interview in September 2010; Before cycle I of this project). Throughout the three cycles, the teacher attempted to encourage student to enjoy learning. He was intended to share his classroom power with students and let them be active classroom participants in different cycles. He allowed students to help each other and work collaboratively in order to create an environment, in which students would activate their thoughts and make meaningful decision. Towards the end of cycle 3, his efforts were categorised by the authors as three ‘Lets’: let students participate actively (MA, 2011: 4), let students think laterally (EA, 2011: 2) and let students feel like being part of a team (EA, 2011: 1). The following three quotes support these three ‘lets’ respectively. The classroom teacher’s reflection on action was also validated by his teaching philosophy:

Teaching activities should embrace all oral, visual and kinaesthetic learners. Teaching Chinese is not only about language acquisition, but also about learners’ the development of their learning ability, namely, learner autonomy. Therefore, my teaching activities focus on how to adapt to learners’ needs and help them to learn actively. I strive to encourage them to take responsibility for their learning and find solutions to their learning tasks (Quoted from the classroom teacher’s teaching philosophy, written in May 2012).

5. Conclusion

The three cycles have witnessed the iterative process of the teacher’s development of professional identity from a teacher-learner to a better teacher. When working with students, the classroom teacher placed himself in the position of a learner. Students’ PT and qualitative feedback on his teaching allowed him to reflect on his professional development, the begging of which was marked by Cycle 1. In cycle 2, the teacher maintained his advantageous features and absorbed the mechanisms, inspired by students. He repeated the same procedure in cycle 3. He kept carving his development of professional identity from cycle 1 to cycle 3. This process indicates the fact that teacher identity is negotiated on an on-going basis and, connected or reshaped within experience.

This study has highlighted students’ role in the Chinese teacher’s professional development. The teacher worked with students collaboratively. He let students take responsibility for their own learning and maximise their say on the classroom teaching. At the same time, the teacher benefited from the outcomes of students’ participation. The findings have led the authors to believe that a classroom can be used for the classroom teacher’s training. There may not be a set recipe for the development of the classroom teacher’s identities. However, students’ feedback can strengthen the teacher’s understandings of his attitude, teaching structure, endeavour to develop students’ learning ability. This classroom teacher’s development of professional identity has created a framework for other classroom teachers to construct their understandings of “how to be”, “how to act” and “how to understand their work and their place in society” (Sachs, 2005: 15).

In this context, students were local Irish. To a great extent, their teaching and feedback on the Chinese teacher's teaching represented local ways of learning and teaching or what local students would expect to learn or be taught. For the Chinese teacher, this project was a process of experiencing and assimilating local educational culture. And this process has proved that the cultural difference between a foreign Chinese teacher and local students can be narrowed. The findings of this study may suggest the ways in which other Chinese new comer-teachers build up their mutual relationships with local language teachers, collaborate with them in order for the former ones to optimise their contribution to local language classes and ensure the qualities of their teaching.

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Note 1. It refers to Group 3's final report in 2009.

Note 2. It refers to student AN's first weekly reflective journal in 2010.

|第二部分|

Part 2

国际英语迁移和汉语外语教学

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摘　要: 母语在成人的二语学习过程中起着重要的作用，对此语言学家和语言教师都已有共识。学习者在第二语言的习得过程中，会有下意识地使用母语的习惯，即所谓的”母语迁移”（L1Transfer）。母语对二语习得会产生积极或消极的影响，产生积极影响的被称为正迁移，反之被称为负迁移。有关母语迁移的研究很多，有些也涉及到了英语或其他语言为母语的学习者对他们学习汉语的影响。然而，对英国高校中的很多师生来说，学习和工作所用的英语并非是他们的母语。那么，英语作为国际语言对非母语使用者学习汉语是否有影响？如果有，都有些什么样的影响？在汉语教学中是否可利用建立在迁移理论上的语言对比方法来帮助这些学生更有效地学习汉语？这些问题的研究现在似乎还极为少见。本文旨在就国际英语环境中的汉语外语教学，结合本人的一些教学经验，就如何借鉴英汉对比研究成果，利用英语的迁移作用帮助母语为非英语的学生学习汉语作一初步的探讨。

关键词： 母语迁移　语言对比　成人外语学习　国际英语　外语学习　汉语外语教学

1. 引言

本人供职的学校位于英国伦敦市中心的摄政公园里，是所私立的高等学校：摄政学院（明年将更名为摄政大学）。学院里的欧洲商学院很有特色，其特色之一就是十分重视外语教学，

外语课约占总课程的三分之一左右，学生还必须去目的语国家与地区学习一年语言或商科课程，其毕业生在完成学业时至少可用三门外语进行日常生活的交流。作为商学院，学校对人才市场的需求嗅觉敏感，行动果断。该学院在上世纪九十年代中期就开设了正式的中文学分课，如今选修中文课的学生人数约占所有学外语学生的百分之二十五，是学院的第三大外语。学院已经和包括清华大学、北京语言大学、南京大学等在内的五所中国大陆的知名学府建有学生交换项目。学生学习汉语的积极性也很高，多次参加英国的大学生汉语桥比赛，在与其他高校汉语专业学生的竞争中均有不俗的表现，多次获得三等奖及其他奖项。学院明年即将推出全新的中文和国际商务本科专业课程。

在学生来源上，该学院也有其自身的特点，这就是国际化程度很高。虽然学院位于英国伦敦，但来自英国本土的学生比例很低，不足百分之五。无论是对那些学习汉语的学生，还是对我们从事汉语教学的老师来说，这都提出了一系列迄今汉语教学研究尚少触及的问题。这些国际学生的第一语言不是英语，英语对他们来说是个什么样的语言，他们学习汉语和学习英语是否有区别，母语迁移理论及语言对比方法对他们学习汉语是否适用等。

母语迁移在成人语言学习中是个普遍的现象，这已是不争的事实。在英国多年的汉语外语教学实践中，本人发现，对于已经能熟练运用英语的成人汉语学习者来说，英汉语言对比对他们学习汉语仍有很大的借鉴作用，英语掌握得越好，迁移现象就越为明显。而英汉对比的文化部分则由于他们使用的是国际英语，迁移现象就不如语言那么明显。因此，我们在对这些学习者进行汉语外语教学时，在内容和方法上都要有所调整，以便有效地利用母语迁移理论和英汉语言对比的研究成果，提高汉语外语教学的效果。

2. 母语迁移和语言习得

“母语迁移”的概念最早出现于二十世纪四五十年代兴起的对比分析理论（Contrastive Analysis）。对比分析是以行为主义心理学的迁移原理和语言学中的结构主义语言学为理论基础而建立起来的一种假设，它将两种语言的系统进行比较，以揭示其异同。它的建立是以美国结构主义语言学家和语言学家罗伯特·拉多 1957 年出版的《跨文化的语言学》（Linguistics Across Culture）为标志的。对比分析作为一种语言研究的方法，60 年代初期和中期在美国和欧洲的一些国家十分流行，许多大学纷纷成立了语言对比研究中心，语言对比的范围和规模也不断扩大。对比分析研究的成果揭示出了许多特殊的语言现象，丰富了普通语言学理论。在外语教学方面，对比分析理论大大地促进了语音系统的教学和外语教材的编写工作。

母语迁移理论认为，在第二语言习得过程中，成人学习者的第一语言即母语的使用习惯会直接影响他们第二语言的习得，并对其起到积极促进或消极干扰的作用。从语言发展心理学的角度来看，一般十四五岁的青少年母语就已发展成熟，具有了成人语言学习的特点。此时开始

学习第二语言，就会不可避免地受到第一语言的影响。母语由于其与外语的相似成分而对外语习得产生的有益的、积极的影响叫做”正迁移”（Positive transfer）；反之，母语由于其与外语的相异成分而对外语习得产生的不利的、消极的影响为干扰（interference），是学习者掌握和运用外语的障碍，即所谓的”负迁移”（negative transfer）。正、负迁移同时存在并共同作用于外语习得。

就外语学习过程中的语言迁移问题，费尔克和卡斯珀（Faerch & Kasper, 1983）这样说过，语言迁移是一种心理过程，在此过程中，第二语言学习者会通过借用其母语知识而产生并使用一种过渡性的语言中介语（interlangue）。中介语专指第二语言习得者所形成的与母语和目的语两者都不同的个人独特的语言系统。二语教学研究中的偏误分析（error analysis) 理论就是建立在此基础之上的。常见的偏误有母语负迁移、过度泛化、误导、学习策略和交际策略等。在外语教学上，语言对比研究的目的之一，就是要通过对比和分析学习者母语和目的语体系，一方面找出其相同的一面，为学习者更顺利地、更成功地实现正迁移创造条件；另一方面找出其相异的一面，防患于未然，杜绝或减少干扰的发生，使学习者能够自觉地避免或少犯语言偏误。

虽然母语对二语习得有影响已是第二语言学习与教学研究者的共识，但就它是如何影响的，在语言学界一直还有争议。受行为主义学习理论的影响，有的学者认为，母语表达习惯和母语思维对第二语言习得有很大的阻碍作用，因此第二语言的学习过程就是逐渐克服母语干扰，养成目的语表达和思维习惯的过程。但也有学者认为，母语对第二语言习得有促进作用，母语的使用是一种很普遍的心理过程，也就是运用以前的知识来学习新知识 。因此母语在二语习得中的积极作用不容忽视。

从上世纪 60 年代后期开始，认知心理学和转换生成语言学的出现，使对比分析的心理学和语言学基础都受到了挑战，人们开始从语言间的对比研究逐渐转向外语学习过程的研究，并对对比分析法进行批评。笔者认为，虽然在某些学生身上，在目的语学习过程中没有出现预测的偏误，但这并不足以否定对比分析法对学习者偏误的预测能力。另外，根据笔者多年汉语二外教学实践中的观察和发现，母语与汉语之间的差异越大，学生学习汉语的困难就越大，偏误出现的可能性就越大。由于语言差异与学习难度间有着直接的联系，学生的学习困难并不意味着汉语是一种难学的语言，而是间接反映出他们母语和汉语间的差异程度。对比分析在对语音、词汇、语法等语言成分进行研究的同时，没有给于语言中的文化因素足够的重视，这和他们的语言共性观相关。

人类世界的语言种类繁多，语系庞杂，语言之间存在着不同的差异。但有语言学家认为，语言在本质上是有共性的，即隐藏于各个语言差异性背后的相近或相同的特性，也就是人类语言和思维的普遍性，是人类语言所共同具有的“共知范畴”（孙德金，2006）。语言的普遍现象 (Linguistic Universals) 会体现于语法规则的表现形式，而共有的原则构成了决定人类每一种语言特定语法基础的普遍语法 (Universal Grammar)。这些语言学家认为，语言的共性特征与二语习得有着密切的关系。语言是思维的工具，语言共性探讨人类语言的普遍特征或性质，也是人

类认知心理的共性。不少的基于实证数据的语言对比习得研究（袁博平等），就是通过对不同母语使用者在某一目的语习得这些普遍法则结果的研究，来验证普遍语法的各种假设。这些研究成果对于外语教学有着重要的指导意义。

3. 国际英语和多语能力

国际英语 (International English) 的概念有两重意义，一是指其地域覆盖的国际化，二是指其领域范围的国际化。从历史的角度来看，英语在世界各地的早期发展和其他几个世界性欧洲语言一样，都是殖民时期扩张和推广的结果，而英语之所以能继续扩张和发展，要归功于二战后同样使用英语的美国的迅速崛起及其后来在世界政治、军事、经济、科技和文化等领域的重大影响。此外，世界经济日益全球一体化和科技的高速发展以及政治文化的多元化趋势，也需要有一种可以供大家交流的语言工具。就使用地域而言，英语为母语的国家包括英国、爱尔兰、美国、加拿大，澳大利亚和新西兰等，可是亚洲和非洲还有众多英语为官方或第二语言的国家。因此，英语世界可谓缤纷多彩，五花八门[①]。由此而形成的国际英语的一个特点就是其多样性。如今的英语已经很难将其完全归属于一个国家或民族。国际英语之所以“国际”，是因为它已经成为越来越多使用者所拥有的共同语言。国际英语也早已不再是单一形式的语言，而是多种形式的英语，英语国际性的另一个主要特点是其因实用价值和广泛应用所日益彰显的工具性。在极为强调语言文化多元化的欧洲，英语这种实用工具性体现得尤为突出。国际英语的这两个特点对英语教学来说，也有着和以往不同的意义。

英语的多种存在形式，尤其是其作为通用交流语言工具的广泛使用领域，正在使国际英语逐渐失去其原有的文化特性。国际社会及欧盟大部分专业技术领域的各种会议，工作语言基本上都是英语。虽然节省成本是考虑的因素之一，但更主要的原因是国际英语特有的交际功能。对于英语教学来说，目的在于掌握国际英语这种“纯”交际语言的学习，和传统的英语外语教学有着很大的不同。从使用目的和语言交际的角度来看，非母语和非官方语的英语使用者之间用英语交流，可能是英语国际性的典型表现。所以，英语在满足着跨文化交际（cross-cultural communication) 和文化间交际 (inter-cultural communication) 两种交流需求。

在欧盟，这种以文化间交际能力为培养目标的外语教学正是欧盟多元语言政策所倡导和鼓励的。欧盟建议欧洲公民都应该具有多种语言应用的能力，并肯定了十年前提出的“母语加两种外语”的三语能力目标，以便使其公民可以真正受益于统一的欧洲市场所提供的就业和个人发展等机会，促进欧洲公民间更好的相互了解。欧盟语言政策的这一发展，大大促进了欧盟地区的外语教学。但是只要仔细看一下欧盟国家的外语教学就不难发现，其第一外语几乎都是英

① 卡鲁（Braj Kachru）所指的三类英语使用国家：核心（inner circle) 的使用国家、外围 (outer circle) 的使用国家和扩展 (expanding circle) 的使用国家。

语。然而，这和传统的英语外语教学在目的上已有着很大的不同，更多的是国际英语教学。尽管学习英语的学生也会到英语为母语的国家去实习，但其主要目的是为了提高他们的实际文化间交际能力，而不是仅限于为了和英国人或其他使用英国国家的人进行交流。在英国以外的西方欧洲国家里，以英语作为工作语言的学校数量近十年里在一直不断地增加。事实上，《欧洲语言共同框架》中提出的片能 / 偏能（partial competence）概念，也是对培养这种外语文化间交际能力的一种说明。

在国际英语的教学中，传统外语教学中的母语国文化成分已经大大降低，方法上也更为重视培养实际交际能力。国际英语理念下培养出来的学生，由于他们学习英语的目的更为明确和专一，他们使用英语进行交流的能力也往往较传统英语外语教学培养出来的学生更强。这些学生的第一语言虽然不是英语，但在英语作为生活工作语言的场合里，大都已经可以不再经过语言转换而完全自如地使用英语。笔者曾连续三年对学习汉语的学生进行调查，询问他们在学习汉语时是用母语进行对比学习还是用英语进行对比学习，超过 95% 的学生都说是与英语进行比较。在近期的四十七个学生调查中，只有英语交流水平略差的两人表示他们有时是用母语进行比较的。因此，我认为母语迁移理论及英汉对比教学方法也适合于这类学生的汉语外语教学。只要加以引导，他们学习英语的经历、他们对英语语言结构及使用习惯之了解，都能有效地帮助他们学习和掌握汉语。

4. 英汉对比和汉语教学

有关英汉语的对比研究以及英汉语母语使用者学习对方语言时的偏误分析研究已经数量甚多，对一些研究机械地对待偏误分析结果及过分夸大偏误分析的作用所提出的批评，也为数不少。但如果汉语教师对这些方法和研究的优点和局限有深入的了解和清醒的认识，其众多的研究成果是可以有效地应用到实际汉语教学工作中去的。也正因为如此，在英国广泛使用的国家和地区教授汉语的教师不但要具有较高的英汉交际能力，还应当了解英汉之异同及其对学习者潜在影响，具备在教学上将问题化难为简的能力。只有这样，教师才能有效而灵活地运用英汉对比及偏误分析研究成果。

我们都知道，语言之间在结构上有完全相同、部分相同和完全不相同三种情况。拉多在《跨文化的语言学》一书中指出，学生接触一门外语后会发现外语中的有些特征相当容易，有些则很困难。根据纽马克和拉贝尔 (Newmark & Reibel 1968) 提出的“无知假设”(ignorance hypothesis)，英语使用者在学习汉语的过程中，不可避免地会使用英语知识和技能来试图完成汉语交际任务。而传统的狭义交际教学法正是忽视了这一点。因此，笔者认为，汉语教师在从事海外汉语教学，尤其是成人初级班的汉语教学时应该注意，一是要尽量强调汉语较英语更为简单的那些方面，如汉语的名词没有格和数的变化，动词没有时态的变化等，以减少和逐步消

除学生由于语言差异而产生的畏惧心理；二是在这种有意识地引导学生发现和利用英汉语共同点和相似之处、促成正迁移形成的同时，把握适当的时机将那些会影响学生汉语学习的主要差异，提纲挈领、言简意赅地点透，并通过精心设计的语言活动，让学生在练习和实践中掌握这些差异。笔者与同事们一起针对母语或工作语言为英语的汉语学习者编写过一套汉语教材《步步高中文》。该书的编写原则之一就是运用语言对比和正负迁移理论，帮助学生较快地掌握一定的汉语知识和交流技能，增加学生学习汉语的成就感和自信心，让一个从未学过汉语的国际英语使用者能在短时间内较为轻松和快捷地学习好汉语。实践证明，在对国际英语学生的汉语教学时，利用英汉对比和国际英语的迁移作用不失为一个事半功倍的有效办法。英汉两种语言的异同涉及语言的方方面面，笔者在此仅就句法和词汇两个方面举例说明。

句型教学　英汉语在基本句型结构方面有很多相同或相似的地方，如：

1. I am British.	我是英国人。	S + V + Predicate
2. He studies Chinese literature.	他学习中国文学。	S + V + O
3. You should go to China.	你应该去中国。	S + Aux. V + O
4. He gave me a dictionary.	他给我一本字典。	S + V + indirect O + direct O
5. He asks me to leave.	他让我离开。	S +V+ O + C

即便是汉语中的复合句，不少在基本结构上也和英语相似。例如：If you feel hungry, we can go to the restaurant now.（如果你觉得饿了，我们现在就可以去餐馆）。学生在学习这些汉语句型时，一般都没有什么问题，可以轻易地掌握，这正是英语对他们学习汉语时所产生的积极的正迁移作用的结果。从句型上看，这些学生学习汉语时经常碰到的困难主要是涉及时间和地点成分时的语序问题（以下例句 1 除外）。这些问题往往是学生套用其英语知识而出现的负迁移现象，如：

1. 我是冷。
2. 他工作在北京。
3. 我会去买书替你。
4. 如果你觉得饿，我们可以去餐馆现在。
5. 昨天我们开会在他们的办公室在市中心。

语言对比研究对英汉语这些差别观察角度不同，解释方式也不尽相同。但对学生来说，只有从他们可以理解的的角度所作的解释，才更容易为他们接受和掌握。其实，涉及时间地点的英汉语序不同反映了该语言使用者心理和思维习惯。就如季羡林先生在《汉语语法学》的序中所指出的，语言文字是思想的外在表现形式，而思想的基础和出发点则是思维模式。在教学中

需要简要举例说明的是，汉语的语序是按照事件的实际发生顺序来安排时间地点的，因此时间和地点一定会在动作之前。正因为如此，加上汉语形态几乎没有变化，汉语的语序十分严格。相比之下，英语语序往往更注重突出行为的结果，因而时间和地点成了“附加成分”，其位置也相对灵活。学生听后就会恍然大悟，并会为汉语的自然逻辑力所折服，而且往往也会较为迅速地摆脱英语语序的负迁移影响。

词汇教学 有了句型结构，作为其砖石的词汇的教学，其重要性这些年也在不断地受到重视。学过英语的人都知道，英语的词汇庞杂，而且几乎是一物一名，充分彰显了这些名词的个性，且不说动名词在语法意义上根据情况还有形态变化。这些往往让初学英语的汉语使用者难以应对。然而，对学习汉语的国际英语使用者来说，由于汉语中的一些词汇，特别是不少的名词，在结构和语义上都与英语相似，如：矿泉水（mineral water），海马（sea horse）和浴室（bathroom）等等，所以潜在的正迁移影响让他们马上就能理解并很快掌握这些词汇。如果老师还能适时而简明扼要地说明类似汉语词汇的构成及其与英语之区别（如汉语的香水，公马和地下室依然按此规则构成，而在英语里则分别成了 perfume，stallion 和 basement), 可见汉语词汇构成之简单。此外，还可适时的举例说明，汉语中用其他构词法生成的词汇，除了部分不透明的以外，大都可以从其构词语素成分的意义揣摩其意义，如：电话，帮助，早饭，笔直，等等。学生了解了汉语的这种构词特点，可帮助他们扩充汉语词汇，加上对句型的掌握，他们通常都能很快地开始进行简单的口头交流。不仅如此，这种词汇教学对他们的阅读也很有帮助。而说到这里，就必须说一下词本位和字本位及汉字教学的问题。

由于英语的习惯影响，学生在学习汉语时自然会比较注意词的学习，而注重口头交流的汉语教学也常常会重视词汇教学，往往见词不见字。因为忽略了对词语构成成分即汉字或语素的教学，学生可能只知牛奶而不知牛为何物。因此汉字的教学十分重要。虽然语和文是否应该相同，汉字应该如何教学等问题还值得进一步的实证研究，但对要长期学习汉语的非汉语专业学生和成人学习者来说，语文同步无论是对学生的学习心理，还是他们的汉语学习效果，都要优于先语后文的做法。虽然只语不文的教学有一定的市场需求，但汉语丰富大量的同音词很快让会他们觉得举步艰难，然后再接触让他们望而却步的汉字，其结果是他们会止步不前。汉字对初学汉语的国际英语使用者来说较为困难。教师要设法充分调动学生的视觉感官，逐渐帮助他们摆脱英语中声形联系较近的习惯，通过了解汉字的结构，建立汉字形意相近的新视角。通过对汉字的结构与英语单词中有意义的前缀、后缀相比，可以帮助学生了解汉字的部件概念，甚至发音。当然，事实上汉语词汇是个很复杂的体系，不但结构方式较多，而且还有诸如离合词以及英汉语词义相互不对称等情况（如在“开门”，“开饭”，“开公司”，“开车”和“开灯”，“开电视”等中的“开”一词）。关键是要择机说明和解释，并要切中要地，化繁为简，在实际练习和使用中避免和逐渐改正词汇的语用失误。

最后，要提一下量词的教学。和英语相比，汉语的名词虽然没有可数与不可数之分，也没

有单复数形态变化要求。但汉语的名词使用时常要加量词，此外，不同的名词还需要用不同的量词来搭配，学生觉得要记忆那么多不同的量词是一件非常困难的事情。其实，英语中也有表示“量”这个概念的词，一般是由名词充当，用在不可数名词之前，因而数量不多，如 a bottle of water（一瓶水）和 a shoal of fish (一群鱼）等。在给学生讲解量词时，可通过英汉语在这方面的对比，建议他们一方面根据量词与物体进行联想记忆，一方面在练习和使用时采取通用量词（如“个”等）和特殊量词（如“一本书”较为固定的搭配等）并举的方法，满足他们交流的需要。学生通过实践会逐渐自信地掌握量词的用法。

5. 结束语

桂诗春先生早在 1985 年就指出，第二语言习得和外语学习不是零起步，而是以母语为起点的。母语知识是外语学习的有利因素，母语提供了一个必要的前提。因为有了母语，学习者对目的语的理解能力才有神速发展的可能。而英语的广泛使用和普及，已经使其成为一种国际性的工作语言。熟练的国际英语使用者在语言知识、使用习惯甚至思维方式上和母语为英语的英语使用者有很多的相似之处。他们在学习另外一种外语时，会下意识地与英语进行比较。但是，母语迁移对成人外语学习者的影响是表现在语言和文化两个层面上，而对学习汉语的国际英语使用者来说，其英语迁移的影响作用更多是在语言而非文化层面上。因此，有关英汉语音、语法、词汇等的母语迁移、对比及偏误分析研究对这些国际英语使用者学习汉语仍具有重要的借鉴作用。在对国际英语使用者的汉语外语教学中，通过细致地观察和研究他们的学习特点，在教学上自觉地利用国际英语对他们学习汉语的迁移作用，有意识地防止或消除负迁移可能造成的干扰影响，可产生事半功倍的效果。

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基于大规模语料的成语调查与教学成语词表的提取

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摘　要：本文利用大规模语料，以季度作为统计节点，考察了连续五年的新闻语料和口语语料成语的分布特点，提取了汉语教学常用成语统计词表，该词表考虑了成语的分布领域、分布时间、频繁程度、稳定性等多方面的因素，为成语教学及汉语词汇大纲提供了有益参考。同时也对三个系列对外汉语教材中出现的成语和《等级划分》、常用成语统计词表进行了对比分析，考察发现目前对外汉语教材中的成语中的绝大多数不在《等级划分》的收取范围内，也有相当一部分不是真实语料中的流行的常用成语，教材成语的选择有必要借鉴大规模语料的统计数据，把统计词表中出现频繁，稳定程度高的成语吸收到教材中去。

关键词：分布特征；统计时点；平均频次；统计词表

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1. 前言

成语形式固定，言简意赅，是汉民族文化的精华所在。其不仅是对外汉语教学的重要组成部分，也是中高级阶段留学生的教学重点和难点。专家们对于如何进行成语教学进行了深入探讨。例如：张亚茹（2006）指出学生学习成语的难点在于不能全面深刻地理解成语的意义与用

法，不能准确恰当地使用成语，应加强语用、语境等方面的教学。夏俐萍（2010）提出多种教学方法进行成语教学。虽然不同年级、不同层次的教材都会有成语出现，但是哪个年级应该教授哪些成语还没有清晰统一的认识。

刘长征（2007）根据前人对辞书的统计，指出目前辞书中的成语可达一两万条，其根据国家语言监测中心 2005 年度的语料统计得到的成语为 8637 条。曾小兵（2010）针对国家语言监测中心 2006-2008 年度的语料，统计得到三年的共有成语 7437 条。上述数据对于汉语教学提供了很好的借鉴。但是这些成语都是基于年度统计，无法看出其稳定程度，因此用于教学还需要进一步的筛选。目前《汉语水平词汇与汉字等级大纲》（词汇大纲）所收成语只有一百多条，远远不能满足需求。

因此本文将在大规模语料的基础上，建立一个可以反应历时变化的成语词表，然后再结合目前的教材成语，提供一个直接用于教材编写的成语教学备选。

2. 语料的选择

成语不仅广泛存于书面语中，在日常口语中也常常涉及。因此，我们在选择语料方面，综合考虑了书面语和口语两个方面的因素，同时还考虑了成语在历时语料中的持续时间。这就是说，一个成语的常用程度不仅和它出现的频次密切相关，同时也和语料的领域和时间有关。所以我们选择了 2005-2009 国家语言监测中心的《人民日报》作为书面语文本，同时也选择了 2005-2009 国家有声媒体分中心的广播电视文本作为口语文本。

为了能够观察到成语在五年时间内更加细致的变化，我们以季度作为断点，分别考察了两种语料 5 年 20 个季度的成语的发展变化。首先利用中科院自动化研究所的分词软件对 5 年内的语料切分标注，提取出全部成语及其在各个季度的频次。这样就为每一个成语绘制出反应 5 年历时变化的曲线。我们可以清晰看到每一个成语的发展变化。例如：

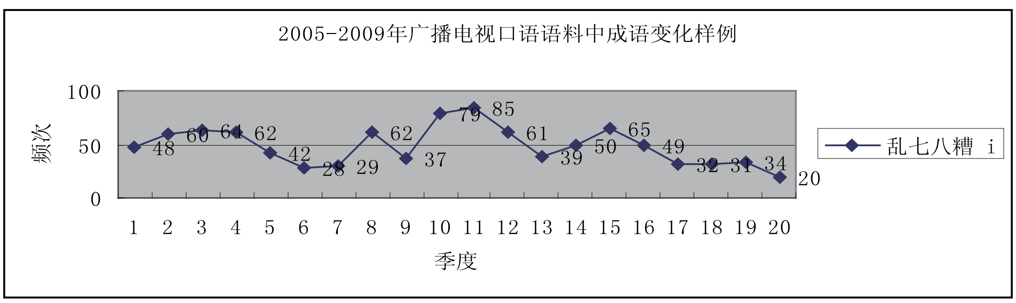

图 1 “乱七八糟”在广播电视口语语料中的频次分布

“乱七八糟”出现在汉语教材中的常用成语中，它在 5 年广播电视语料中的季度节点中也连续出现，可以看出其比较常用。

3 常用成语的提取

我们对 2005-2009 年中《人民日报》和广播电视语料展开调查，最后得到 5 年内连续出现的常用成语词表。结果如下：

表 1 《人民日报》和广播电视语料中成语的分布

语料	人民日报（2005-2009）					广播电视（2005-2009）				
年份	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**
一季度	2887	2733	2706	2684	2501	2369	3409	3699	3478	3670
二季度	2907	2759	2833	2551	2770	2775	3544	3814	3485	3775
三季度	2900	2833	2955	2645	3205	3059	3364	3639	3536	3837
四季度	2709	2676	2564	2590	2903	2944	3408	3556	3493	3556
季度共有数	1688	1562	1588	1461	1641	1536	2540	2853	2558	2894
年度共有数	851					1316				
两种语料交集	612									
两种语料并集	1292									

从季度节点看，出现在季度中的成语超过千条，但是考虑季度节点中连续出现的因素，数量就会大大降低。《人民日报》连续出现的成语有 851 条，广播电视语料中连续出现的成语有 1316 条，两种语料的成语总数为 1292 条，而在两种语料中连续出现的成语只有 612。曾小兵（2010）通过三年的国家语言监测语料的考察得出一个量化的指标，即“800 条左右的成语频次已经覆盖了全部成语的使用频次的 90%”，这说明，对外汉语教学只考虑 800 条左右的成语就基本能满足教学的需要。这 1292 条可以作为对外汉语教学的成语备选。

王治敏（2009）曾利用频次信息和时段信息设计了一个提取常用名词的模型，成功提取出了《汉语水平与汉字等级大纲》中过时的词汇和最近新出现的常用名词。

$$U = \frac{\overline{f}}{stdev(f)} \tag{1}$$

U 为常用度，式（1）中，$\overline{f}$ 表示词语出现的平均频次，其计算公式如式（2）所示。$stdev(f)$ 表示词语出现频次的标准差，其计算公式如式（3）所示。

$$\overline{f} = \frac{f_1 + f_2 + \cdots + f_n}{n} = \frac{\sum f}{n} \tag{2}$$

$$stdev(f)=\sqrt{\frac{\sum(f-\overline{f})^2}{n-1}} \tag{3}$$

式（2）、式（3）中，n 为词语统计频次 f 的个数。

该模型对于汉语常用成语提取同样具有借鉴意义，我们以广播电视语料为例。

表 2　广播电视语料中成语的常用度

2005-2009 口语__成语			
词语	**stdev**	**aver**	**U=aver/stdev**
解放思想	156.657008847522	143.55	.916333083697012
千方百计	105.179345580975	124.2	1.18084020502278
全力以赴	98.5800636405172	124.85	1.26648325624214
前所未有	92.8102194917417	170.5	1.83708217622706
坚定不移	91.2762723534262	129.1	1.41438729552976

从平均频次（aver）来看，“解放思想”的使用平均次数最高。但是从标准差（stdev）来看，“解放思想”最不稳定，一个词语的平均使用次数最高，说明其常用性，但是其标准差最大，说明其稳定性最差，其常用程度也会受到限制。因此，使用上面的模型，我们就可以看到”解放思想”的常用度 (U) 相对于其他词语有所下降。

汉语教学所使用的成语不仅体现在频次的多少，还体现在其稳定程度和使用语体方面，因此我们的实验模型不仅充分考虑了使用频次、统计时点、稳定程度方面的因素，同时还满足了一个最常用成语必须在《人民日报》和广播电视两种语料同时出现且常用度排名靠前的条件。

表 3　《人民日报》和广播电视语料中排名前五位的成语统计

广播电视语料常用度排名前五位的成语			《人民日报》常用度排名前五位的成语		
词语	**U(口)=aver/stdev**	**U(书)**	**word**	**U(书)**	**U(口)=aver/stdev**
所作所为	3.07574613196902	1.57390738800586	任重道远	7.79805231314112	1.71802478404538
如履薄冰	2.97543726835511	2.15394927030854	丰富多彩	6.09211699525128	1.82392840291405
自然而然	2.92951666341976	2.26134532487002	名副其实	5.36032620794818	2.0522214418795
可乘之机	2.89734606286377	2.26704546834264	引人注目	5.17795773113992	2.08544799656777
喜怒哀乐	2.87250850679569	2.54441153069761	迫在眉睫	4.64546466618951	2.02398085971721

上述成语是在两种语料中常用度排名靠前的成语，虽然这些成语在两种语料中均有出现，但是他们在各自语料中的常用度完全不同，“所作所为”在广播电视口语体中的常用度要高于《人民日报》书面语体。而“任重道远”在《人民日报》书面语体的常用度要远远高于广播电

视口语体。常用度相差越大，说明其语体使用的差异性越大。通过这种差异可以很好地描写一个成语的语体风格，是很好的参考数据。

这里我们有两种考虑。一方面我们可以把在两种语料中常用度数值相差大的词语全部提取出来，作为不同语体的常用成语备选。另一方面我们还要考察只在一种语料中出现使用度较高的成语，这种成语在语体方面具有很强的特性，也可以作为教学的成语备选。

同时，我们还考察在两种语料中出现，平均频次和使用度相差不大的成语。因为这类成语非常稳定，不因为语体的原因而改变。这类成语在我们的词表中比重最高。是我们考察的重点。

对于结构相近的同义成语，也可以根据其统计信息择优收录。例如：

接踵而来　　真心诚意　　引人瞩目　　经久不息

接踵而至　　真心实意　　引人注目　　经久不衰

他们从结构上看完全一致，只有一字之差。它们在文本中是否有差别？哪个更常用一些？如果有一些数据支持，教材编写就会有更多的参考依据。下列两组成语在文本中存在明显差别。例如：

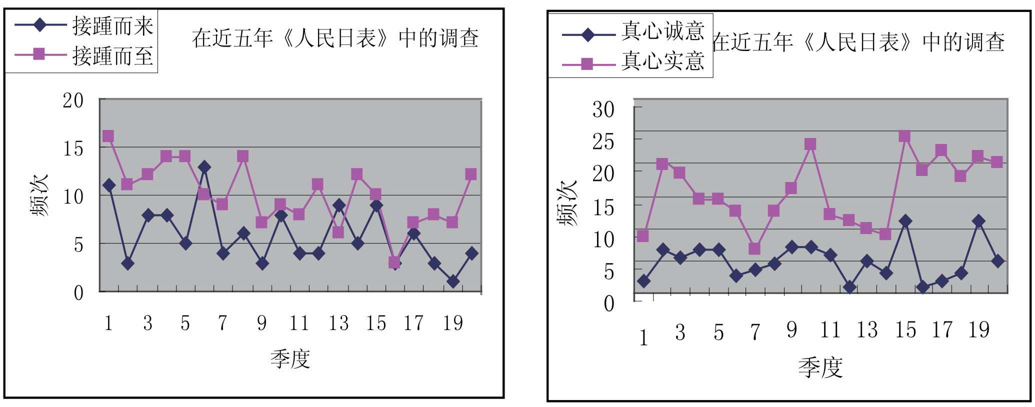

图 2　近义成语举例

在《人民日报》中“接踵而至”相对于“接踵而来”更常用一些，“真心实意”口语化意味相对更浓一些，比“真心诚意”更加常用。关于这一点我们在广播电视口语语料中也得到了认证。例如：

表 4　“真心实意”在广播电视语料中的统计

词语	词性	aver	sum	stdev	aver/stdev
真心实意	i	10.95	219	5.74433359242416	1.90622634006515

“真心实意”在广播电视语料中的 20 个季度节点中全部出现，平均频次为 10.95，而“真心诚意”并没有出现。因此，常用成语统计词表可以为汉语教学的同义词辨析提供重要数据。

4. 常用成语词表及教材成语的对比分析

常用成语词表的收词完全来自大规模语料的统计，这些广泛出现在大规模语料中的成语

在教学中是否得到使用，笔者为此专门对三个系列教材课文中出现的成语进行了统计。三个系列教材分别为北京语言大学初中高级汉语本科系列教材《北语系列》, 博雅汉语初中高级教材《博雅系列》和北大初中高级教程《北大系列》。三个系列教材包含了汉语初级、中级、高级三个阶段的教学内容。三个系列教材不同阶段的成语分布如下：

表 5　系列教材不同阶段的成语分布

	北语系列		博雅系列		北大系列	
教材	教材名称及本数	成语个数	教材名称及本数	成语个数	教材名称及本数	成语个数
初级	汉语教程（5）	31	博雅初级（2）	1	北大初级教程（4）	2
中级	桥梁（2）	86	博雅中级（4）	128	北大中级教程（2）	62
高级	三年级现代汉语高级教程《高汉》(2)	233	博雅高级（2）	183	汉语高级教程（2）	265
共有成语	桥梁∩高汉	11	博雅中级∩博雅高级	7	北大中级∩北大高级	4

从三个系列教材成语数量来看，成语分布极不均匀。初级阶段分布数量很少，其中博雅系列和北大系列的初级阶段只出现 1 到 2 例成语，北语系列出现 31 例成语。这说明博雅和北大系列教材编写者一般都把成语的教学放在中高级阶段。只有北语系列在初级阶段涉及到成语教学。

中级阶段，三个系列教材成语数量急剧上升，特别是博雅系列和北大系列教材中分别出现了 128 例和 62 例成语，两套教材的成语大量出现都是从中级阶段开始，基础相同，成语数量却相差如此之大，这说明成语教学长期以来被人忽视，专家在编写教材时缺乏相应的依据。

高级阶段，北语系列和北大系列的成语数量出现 3-4 倍增长，达到 200 多条，博雅系列成语增长速度放慢，低于 200 条。三个系列成语数量参差不齐，相差悬殊，中高级两个层次中，同一系列教材内部出现的共有成语非常少，重现率极低。

除此之外，我们对三个系列教材的中高级教程进行了横向比较。结果如下：

表 6　系列教材中的共有成语

教材系列	中级	总数	占比例	高级	总数	比例
北语∩博雅∩北大	0	276	0%	6	681	0.88%
北语∩博雅	11	148	7.43%	20	416	4.81%
北语∩北大	4	214	1.87%	37	548	6.75%
博雅∩北大	7	190	3.68%	16	448	3.57%

中级阶段，三个系列教材的共有成语为 0。高级阶段三个系列教材的共有成语只有 6 例，占这个层次成语总数的 0.88%，它们是“百无聊赖、气喘吁吁、吞吞吐吐、微不足道、无可奈何、兴高采烈”。这三个系列教材中的独有成语已经达到 99%。我们进一步缩小范围，对任意两个系列的中高级出现的成语进行了调查，发现教材中共有成语所占比例非常少，均在 10% 以下。这说明对外汉语系列教材内部成语收取缺少客观依据，教材和教材之间，以及教材内部不同层级之间缺乏有效的衔接。

为了验证教材共有成语在真实文本中的分布，我们以成语统计词表为参照，考察了三个系列教材中的成语在大规模语料中的分布。

表 7　教材共有成语在成语统计词表中的比例

教材系列	中级	出现在词表中的成语	比例	高级	出现在词表中的成语	比例
北语∩博雅∩北大	0	0	0	6	5	83.33%
北语∩博雅	11	10	90.91%	20	15	75.00%
北语∩北大	4	4	100.00%	37	24	64.86%
博雅∩北大	7	5	71.43%	16	11	68.75%

调查发现在高级阶段三个系列教材中出现的 6 例成语中，有 5 例出现在成语统计词表中。两个系列的共有成语绝大比例都出现在常用成语统计词表中。但是我们还应该看到，三个系列教材的共有成语非常有限，绝大多数成语都是教材的独有成语。2010 年国家汉办和教育部社科研制了《汉语国际教育用音节汉字词汇等级划分》简称《等级划分》，这是目前最新的汉语教学词汇参考数据，共收录了 11093 个词语。其中四字成语为 423 条。

教材成语在《等级划分》和常用成语统计词表中分布如何？我们做了进一步考察，结果如下：

表 8　教材成语在《等级划分》和常用成语统计词表中的分布

级别	教材系列	教材名称及本数	教材成语	教材成语在统计词表中的个数	在本部教材中所占比例	教材成语在《等级划分》中的个数	在本部教材中占所比例
中级	北语	桥梁（2）	86	59	68.60%	36	41.86%
	博雅	博雅中级（4）	128	71	55.47%	40	31.25%
	北大	北大中级（2）	62	40	64.52%	14	22.58%
高级	北语	三年级高汉 (2)	233	135	57.94%	46	19.74%
	博雅	博雅高级（2）	183	74	40.44%	24	13.11%
	北大	汉语高级教程（2）	256	125	47.17%	52	20.31%

上表的统计可以看出，教材中出现的成语出现在《等级划分》数量很少，占本部教材的比例很低，这意味着 3 个系列教材的成语远远超出了《等级划分》收词范围，而教材成语出现在成语统计词表的数量远远高于《等级划分》的数量。这说明，教材成语虽然超出了《等级划分》的范围，但是它们连续 5 年在大规模语料中出现，仍然可以看作常用成语，可以作为成语教学的一部分。

北语系列教材中的成语在大规模文本中出现的比例高于其他两个系列教材。其中北语系列的中级《桥梁》中出现的成语在统计词表中比例最高，占本部教材的 68.60%。但是也应该看到，近一半的教材成语并不是我们日常生活中常出现的成语，教材成语的出现缺乏系统性和科学性。特别是高级阶段的成语，她们在常用成语统计词表和《等级划分》中的比例普遍偏低。

由于教材之间缺乏联系，同一层次的留学生因为汉语教材不同，成语的教学内容几乎毫不相关，这样就会带来成语教学的混乱。同时教材中的很多成语并非日常生活中的常用成语，这势必会导致教学和语言实际应用的脱节。因此，教材成语的选择有必要针对大规模语料的统计数据，对教材中的成语逐一排查，把统计词表中出现频繁、，稳定程度高的成语吸收到教材中去。

5. 结语

本文参照大规模语料，考察了连续 5 年来《人民日报》和广播电视语料中成语的分布，提取了汉语教学常用成语统计词表，同时也对三个系列对外汉语教材中出现的成语和《等级划分》、常用成语统计词表进行了对比分析。考察发现目前对外汉语教材中的成语绝大多数不在《等级划分》的收取范围内，也有相当一部分不是真实语料中流行的常用成语，而具有时间连

续性的常用成语统计词表包括了成语在规模语料中的分布领域、分布时间、频繁程度、稳定性等多种信息，在一定程度上为成语教学提供了客观数据。

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Achieving Maximum Results in a Limited Time: Development of Economic Principles in Business Chinese Adult Class

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Abstract

This paper reports on a trial of developing economic principles and practical strategies used in a CFL business Chinese adult beginners' class at Newcastle College, United Kingdom. Taking into consideration the adult business Chinese learners' particular situation: being able to contribute a limited time, but expecting to get as much knowledge and effective skills as possible, the researchers decided to develop a series of economic principles for the purpose of supporting the learners to achieve maximum results in a limited time. So far a huge amount of strategies and resources in the field of teaching CFL have been introduced, and the need of using economic principles in this field has also been addressed, including some specific suggestions in overlooking some 'non – consequential' skills in general education (e.g. Lu & Xie, 2004; Bellassen, 2012). However, there is little in the literature suggesting what kind of economic principles in the area of business Chinese need to be considered and how to apply them to teaching CFL business Chinese adult beginner learners. Therefore, the study presented in this paper would like to be considered as a trial at the exploratory stage rather than testing any existing theoretical framework. The data were collected through each learner's initial and end of course feedback, and the completion of a 5 topic - based tasks portfolio as evidence to shape the results and to draw the findings. The results indicate that the strategies of economic principles are efficient and effective in CFL business Chinese beginner class. It is hoped that the findings of effective strategies applied in this study could serve as the basis for a further study of economic principles with Chinese special culture values in many other areas to best meet individual CFL learners' need and facilitate their learning.

Keywords: Chinese as a foreign language **(**CFL), business Chinese, adult learners, economic principles

1. Introduction

This section will first briefly discuss the definition of economic principle in the CFL teaching context, then will present the background of this study, the gap in the literature to fill in, the aim of this study including the research question and its hypothesis.

1.1 Understanding of economic principle

According to *NCIKU Online Dictionary*, the word 'economic' means 'relating to the economy of a particular country or region; not costing or spending much money; making satisfactory profit from business activities'. In the CFL teaching context, Lu & Xie's (2004: 1) suggests that '…some detailed language skills which are non-consequential in real communication (which do not affect intelligibility) be substandardized, thus reserving valuable class time and resources for dissemination of cultural knowledge -- the major function of foreign language courses in general education.' Bellassen's (2012) explanation indicates 省力原则 (saving efforts) reflecting 事倍功半 (achieving maximum results with little effort) or 排除一切多余 (excluding those inessentials or avoiding splitting hair). Inspired by these suggested methods, this study was designed to achieve maximum results with little efforts and in a limited time.

1.2 Background

With China's expanding economy and increasing number of people conducting business in China or in any Chinese speaking areas, there appears that business people feel the need of developing their knowledge about China, intercultural adaptations and, in particular, ability to use Chinese language effectively for practical business communications. To meet the need of those business people and those who intended to do business with Chinese people, a business adult class at a beginner level was established at School of Modern Languages, Newcastle College by offering a 10 - week of 2 - hour evening course. As a consequence of the initial investigation, they were absolute beginners for CFL, and the time for those business adult learners was absolutely tight, and they would like to learn as much as they can, but spend as little time as possible. In addition, they almost have no free time to do homework or any other out - of - class work. Therefore they expected a very productive classroom time with practical results in each session.

1.3 The need of economic principles and the aim of this study

As discussed above, Lu and Xie (2004) have contributed their views on using economic principles to teach CFL at university level in general education, in which they suggest substandardizing some non – consequential language skills, allowing substandard pronunciations and incorporating substandard variations. Bellassen (2012) at the 10th BCLTS International Symposium on TCFL in Higher Education, delivered a keynote speech under the title of "TCFL and Economic Principles" which verified the original idea of "economy" in Greek and French language and explained the application of "economic principles" in language and linguistics. However, the research of literature indicates that the study on using economic principles in CFL business Chinese adult beginner class is too limited to be found. Therefore the present study was carried out, as a trial at the exploratory stage rather than testing any existing theoretical framework, aiming to explore effective strategies as a trial by developing economic principles in CFL business aspects.

1.4 Research question, hypothesis and contribution to seek

As Zhang (2012: 231) points out, '…the business Chinese course has strong features of short - term, quick - effect and business - oriented', the situation and demand for this business Chinese class proposed a question to the course tutors: How to develop quick, easy, interesting and effective strategies to support those learners? The tutors decided to develop economic principles in assisting those adult beginners to achieve maximum results in a limited time. The research questions were thus formed:

- Are the strategies of economic principles efficient in CFL business Chinese beginner class?

- Are the strategies of economic principles effective in CFL business Chinese beginner class?

As possible responses to the research questions, the hypotheses are:

- The strategies of economic principles are efficient in CFL business Chinese beginner class.
- The strategies of economic principles are effective in CFL business Chinese beginner class.

The applications of economic principles are expected to demonstrate if the hypotheses could be positive or negative.

2. Methods

In this section, the learners, the course requirements and the practices of strategies will be provided.

2.1. The Learners

The 16 learners for this business Chinese beginner course are of different ages (18 – 64), different cultural backgrounds (mostly British) and different occupations, but all with high motivation and high expectation. Their response to the Initial Survey Sheet (see Table 1) indicated their background situation which required the use of economic principles for classroom practice: saving time and efforts to achieve the objectives. All the data were collected during the course and analyzed from those learners' feedback.

2.2. The course requirements

This was a 10 weeks of 2 hours weekly business Chinese beginner evening course. There was no requirement of previous knowledge, but the learners were specially required to:

- Demonstrate commitment to regular attendance
- Be fully engaged in class activities

The course aimed:

- To activate learners' interest in experiencing Mandarin Chinese skills and knowledge about China & inter-culture
- To develop the ability to use Business Chinese effectively for purposes of practical communication
- To establish the skills, language and confidence to promote and facilitate further study of Busi-

ness Chinese following this beginner course

The communicative contents were to be covered:

- To great people in a business context
- To introduce oneself and others
- To express time, years, months, dates
- To ask a price, purchasing
- To order food
- To talk about family, occupations and age
- To make and answer phone calls
- To ask and give directions and places
- To drink a toast
- To congratulate

Throughout the course, the materials used were mainly selected from the 2 core textbooks: *Gate Way to Business Chinese: Regular Formulas and Etiquette*; *Experiencing Chinese: living in China*, plus supplementary materials.

There were no formal exams. The learners were required to do only topic - based activities in class, and finally to complete a portfolio of 5 tasks of listening, speaking, reading and writing basic skills to achieve the 5 National Open College Network (NOCN)'s Entry 3 level communication outcomes.

2.3. The practices of strategies

The practices were conducted with the 16 learners. Unfortunately the number of the learners gradually dropped to 12 due to the distractions such as business conferences, holidays, changing jobs, family issues, and like which seemed normal for adult class. Notwithstanding, a series of strategies were positively carried out mainly through role plays, together with varieties of resources, for example, PPT, flash cards, handouts, worksheets, songs, video clips, etc.

At the beginning of each session, the learning objectives and success criteria were displayed, and at the end of the session, achievements, progress made were reviewed by linking to the learning objectives and success criteria as previously set. The learners' feedback proved to be very useful for the tutors to modify next session's planning and classroom practice.

To keep the class quick, easy, interesting and effective, the main strategies of economic principles were used as below:

2.3.1 Discarding the dross and selecting the essential（去粗取精）

This strategy is similar to the ways as suggested by Lu and Xie (2004), Bellassen (2012). For example, to teach the *Pinyin* knowledge*,* rather than frightening the learners away with a large table of phonetic symbols, it would be OK as long as the learners could notice the tone marks and pronounce the combinations of Initials and Finals, saving time for situational conversations.

2.3.2 Using higher order thinking skills（开发高水平思维技能）

Inspired by the updated Bloom's (1956) taxonomy (Overbaugh and Schultz, 2012: 1), the higher order thinking skills such as *Analyzing, Evaluating, Creating* were developed in this course, for example, based on Chinese linguistic pictographic, ideographic features to enlarge vocabulary and consolidate memory. Notwithstanding the learners were at the beginning level, their learning potentials should be encouraged. After analyzing characters, or grammar structures, they were able to imagine, judge and develop more words and expressions.

2.3.3 Developing more from a single instance（举一反三）

The strategy, that teaching less, but generating more, was highly accepted, particularly for the knowledge and language skills related to business culture. For example, for the greetings and meetings, apart from *Welcome* 欢 迎 *,Hello* 你 好，more useful expressions in business communication were also introduced such as using address forms, exchanging business cards, accepting invitations (恭敬不如从命 *To obey is the better way for politeness*) and other etiquettes as 'Dos and Don'ts' or Chinese '关系 *Guanx*i', etc. For the numbers, apart from recognising them, the lucky or unlucky interpretations, some 4 - character expressions associated with business culture were also introduced, for example, 一心一意，一五一十，一诺值千金，一帆风顺，三心二意，十全十美，etc. For the colours, there was always more to introduce such as the lucky, unlucky interpretations, taboos and fondness, 'green hat' 绿帽子 for cuckold, or 'business is yellow' for business failure 生意黄了. In this way, the learners were excited and having the feeling of learning in an easy, interesting and effective way.

2. Results and discussion

In this section, the results will be summarized and discussed, and the findings will be listed.

3.1. Results achieved

In summary, the feedback from each session during the 10 - week course, and the end of course review and assessment indicate that the research hypotheses: ‘The strategies of economic principles are efficient and effective in CFL business Chinese beginner class’ are positive, and the aim of this study is also achieved: ‘Exploring effective strategies by developing economic principles in CFL business aspects.’ The majority of learners’ successful completion of portfolio of 5 tasks with 4 skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) (see Table 2) leads to confirm that the strategies used in this study such as *Discarding the dross and selecting the essential*（去粗取精）and *Developing more from a single instance*（举一反三）are consistent with the economic principles in teaching CFL suggested by Lu & Xie’s (2004) and Bellassen (2012). Furthermore, this study has also identified the strategies developed to teach CFL business Chinese adult beginning learners, in which the expanding teaching reflecting Chinese business culture has really supported the learners to achieve maximum in a limited time.

3.2. The findings

As discussed in Section 1.3, this paper reports on the results of an exploratory study on trying economic principles in a CFL business Chinese adult beginner class. The strategies and practices used in this study indicate more findings from practical experience than the 3 large strategies in Sections 2.31 - 2.33. They are summarized and listed as below:

3.2.1 To give timely help rather than to improve on perfection 雪中送炭而非锦上添花

This is business Chinese beginners’ main expectation.

3.2.2 To make use of what having learnt rather than empty talk 学以致用而非纸上谈兵

The business Chinese adult learners need to put the knowledge into use as soon as they have learnt, e.g. 干杯！ everyone could say that in a real banquet situation.

3.2.3 To produce immediate effects rather than to be ineffective 立竿见影而非不见成效

The learners would like to see their progress and achievements in each session of the course.

3.2. 4 To develop more from a single instance rather than to disorganize 举一反三而非杂乱无章

The learners would like to get as much information as they can, the teachers should be careful to pass on the knowledge where appropriate/necessary

3.2.5 To be tolerant rather than to totally neglect 宽容大度而非视而不见

To save time and efforts in class, which does not mean the teacher should not answer those 'inconsequential' questions if a learner asks, and the teacher need to give a brief explanation if the language point appears on the textbook or would affect the communication.

3.2.6 To provide expanding contents rather than to spoon-feed/cram 扩充内容而非囫囵吞枣

As mentioned in *3.2. 4, the learners would like to know more, and the teacher offers where necessary to extend learning, particularly to those* '*quic*k' *ones with a* '*insatiabl*e' *thirst for more, but teachers need to ensure their full understanding rather than like* '*feeding Beijing duck*s' *and to avoid their confusion* '*Bite off more than one can chew* 贪多嚼不烂 .'

4. Conclusion

In this section, the limitations of this study, implications and the need for further research will be discussed.

4.1. Limitations

In this study, the conventional research instruments such as questionnaires, interviews or language tests for qualitative and quantitative results became impossible. The only possible reason to explain this was the short course and participants' limited time to contribute. This also indicated one of the adult learners' features as discussed in other sections of this paper. Therefore the data and analysis had to be based on the learners' feedback from each session, the initial survey and end of course review, and the final submission of their portfolios, as a way to be convincing. As this study has taken a step in exploring the effects of economic principles in a CFL business Chinese adult class, and the useful strategies as findings have been identified, which may be a basis to initiate other researchers, practitioners to do further studies, using a Chinese saying 'to throw a brick to attract jade - to offer commonplace remarks so that others may come up with more valuable opinions 抛砖引玉 .'

4.2. Implications

The researchers hope that this study will serve as an initial step to CFL teachers, researchers, particularly those interested in Chinese business culture and communication skills. The researchers believe that there may not be best teaching methods, but there should be the most suitable ones to meet learners' need.

4.3. Future research

As discussed in the previous sections, the data in this study limits the statistical presentation; there is a need for future research by using a larger sample, more research instruments and significance testing to identify more efficient and effective strategies in the field of teaching CFL business Chinese. There is also a need for research into the comparison of differences between Chinese and western business cultures, and the influence on the language used in practical communication. In addition, a further study of economic principles with Chinese special culture values applied in many other areas will be interesting.

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Table 1 Results of initial survey n=16

Questions	Yes	No	Other comments
1. Have you ever studied this language before?		16	
2. Have you ever been to China or any other countries speaking Chinese?	3	13	
3. Are you taking this course for business purpose?	11		5 for personal interest
4. Are you interested and confident to do this course well?	16		
5. Are you able to ensure a high attendance?	10		6 not sure, too busy
6. Do you have any time to study at home?	4	12	
7. Do you only prefer to listen to the teacher and repeat in class?		16	practical communications
8. Do you want to extend your learning if possible?	16		
9. Are you sure to complete a portfolio of the final 5 tasks?	10		6 not sure, too busy
10. Do you want to continue your study following this course?	10		6 just basic knowledge

This is the information used to prepare for the Business Chinese adult beginner course.

Table 2 Results of end of course review and assessment n=12

Learners	Objectives achieved? Yes(✓) / No(X)	Comments	Portfolio Completed Yes(✓) / No(X)
1	✓	interesting, efficient, effective	✓
2	✓	Interesting, clearly structured, easy	✓
3	✓	interesting, informative, easy	✓
4	✓	interesting, efficient, effective	✓
5	✓	interesting, informative, effective	✓
6	✓	interesting, informative, effective	✓
7	✓	interesting, efficient, effective	✓
8	✓	interesting, informative, effective	✓
9	✓	interesting, effective, challenging	X (gone abroad)
10	✓	interesting, effective, challenging	X (busy)
11	✓	interesting, effective, challenging	X (holiday)
12	✓	interesting, effective, challenging	X (busy)

8 out of 12 submitted the portfolios of the 5 tasks

对外汉语阅读策略的教学实践初探

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摘　要： 由于汉语与欧洲语言的书写系统的巨大差异，很多对外汉语的学生，尤其是初学者，都会觉得中文阅读极其困难，以至于会成为进入高级阶段学习的障碍。所以探讨汉语阅读策略对于学习者能够相对容易地进入中高级阶段的学习，似乎意义就比较重大。 笔者在简要回顾对外汉语教学阅读策略的研究的基础上，解释策略教学实践中的基本方法，并征询学生反馈，提出阅读策略教学的重要性。本文不是一个实证研究的报告，而是旨在交流教学心得，以期得到学者和专家们及时而宝贵的指导。

关键字： 阅读策略、对外汉语初学者、学生反馈

1. 引言

阅读在外语学习中的重要性是不言而喻的。当一个外语学习者能够用这种语言获取信息时，往往他们已经处于中高级阶段了。他们是如何达到这一阶段的，老师和学生们自己都会常常将此归于是锲而不舍、刻苦努力的结果。这当然不无道理，而在外语教学的研究中不难发现，尽管这些学习者本人并不能清楚地列出自己都用了什么样的策略去应对了什么样的学习任务，学习者是在自觉不自觉地利用一些适合自己的策略，以期达到良好的学习效果的。由于汉语与欧洲语言的书写系统的巨大差异，很多对外汉语的学生，尤其是初学者，都会觉得中文阅读极其困难，以至于会成为进入高级阶段学习的障碍。所以探讨汉语阅读策略对于学习者能够相对容易地进入中高级阶段的学习，似乎意义就比较重大。 本文不是一个实证研究的报告，而是旨在总结教学实践的基础上，提出阅读策略教学的重要性，以期得到学者和专家们及时而宝贵的指导。

2. 对外汉语阅读的策略研究

在对外汉语阅读的策略研究中，大多数学者将注意力放在了中高级学习者的身上。Du (2000 引自 Lee-Thompson 2008) 研究了 12 个美国汉语学习者 (6 个中级，6 个高级) 在阅读一篇台湾报纸上的说明性短文时所采用的策略。她发现的宏观策略包括诠释课文及从语言结构角度着眼，而微观策略包括翻译和识别字词。她还发现其中 8 个学习者用微观策略的频率高于使用宏观策略的频率，并把很多时间花在不认识的汉字上；然而这些学习者已经发展了把有意义的词语单位从文章中较快分离出来的技能（即：汉语阅读分界技巧）。Lee-Thompson (2008) 调查了 8 个美国中级学习者在理解记叙文和议论文时所采取的策略，发现了 12 种以词语和课文为出发点的微观策略，也将其称为自下而上的策略，即学习者用这些策略理解小的阅读单位：汉字、词语、短语。同时她也发现了 15 种自上而下的策略，这些策略又叫做以读者为基础的宏观的高级的阅读策略，包括整合信息、试图从文章整体方面或大于句子的单位着手来理解信息、设立假说、监控阅读等。在这 27 种策略中，22 种可以归为认知策略，5 种为元认知策略。此研究证实了学习者是同时使用几种策略的。Lee-Thompson (2008) 的研究中有 4 个学习者提出认识汉字很难，形似的汉字常会混淆，不但分离词语的技能有待发展。

Everson and Ke (1997) 的研究还发现高级学习者能够推测由多个汉字组成的词的意思，即这些学生发展了被称作是”汉字网络”的技能，知道单个汉字的意思时，就能够猜测出其组合的意思，虽然这样的组合从前并未学过。相反，中级学习者的汉语阅读分界的能力较低，他们似乎可以认出已经知道的词语，但是推测生词词义的能力有限。DeFrancis (1968, 引自 Everson and Ke 1997) 的研究揭示了课堂上如何介绍汉字组合，尤其是介绍共用一个或两个汉字的组合，以期发展学生的”汉字网络”及对汉字学习的系统性的了解。Wang (1953, 引自 Everson and Ke 1997) 和 Li and Wang(1988, 引自 Everson and Ke 1997) 在学生阅读的课文中按照意群留出空隙，以便于理解课文。江新用实验的方法 (2005) 发现对于中级的欧美学生来说，似乎字音和字义一样重要，她同时推测，初级阶段的欧美学生通达汉语字词的意义主要依赖语音通路，随着汉语阅读水平提高，语音中介的作用逐渐减弱，字形通路的作用逐渐增强，而到高级阶段、到熟练读者的水平，可能字形的作用会大于字音的作用。Ptaszynski (2009) 探讨了阅读策略是否受到课堂教学方法的影响，他发现在低级阶段教授汉字组合有利于学生有效地利用汉字分析（汉字组成部件或音义组合成分）的策略去猜测生词。

在以上文献回顾的启示下，我在初级对外汉语的教学中有意识地引入策略教学，并在学生中征询反馈。下面把所用过的策略练习简单地列举一下。

3. 课程介绍及教学实践

本文所涉及的学生在一所英国大学学习汉语并作为他们的选修课，每周三个小时，一个学年有六十六小时的课堂学习（含考试）。以下所举的例子曾经用在第一、二年的汉语课堂中。学生的反馈是在第二年结束时记录下来的。

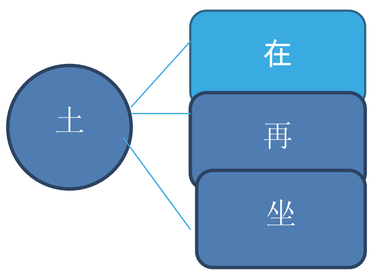
3.1 汉字和汉字策略同时教学

在开始学习汉语的时候，虽然发音很重要，但是汉字 跟拼音同时出现；在学习发音和汉字的同时，引导学生认识汉字的构成规律，进行汉字策略的教学。也就是说，汉字教学本身和汉字策略教学几乎同步进行。比如说，当学过了一些汉字部首之后，让学生根据学过的部首的意思，选择这些英语词可能对应哪个汉字：

swim	a. 泳	b. 语	c. 妮
Pine	a. 瀑	b. 松	c. 歌
sigh	a. 术	b. 叹	c. 跑
swallow	a. 但	b. 棒	c. 吞

（例一）

再如，还可以做下面的练习，让学生找出右侧汉字所共同含有的部首：



（例二）

通过做以上练习，学生不仅能深入了解汉字的结构特点和部首的意义，而且领会如何利用汉字认知的特殊性来学习汉语。 另外，在汉字教学的初级阶段，积极鼓励学生不断总结自己所用的方法，在班级中适时加入简短的讨论，以提高学生汉字学习策略的意识。

3.2 引导学生根据汉语的语法结构特点提高阅读速度

初学者有每字必读的倾向，有的甚至于每字必标拼音才能明其义的程度，这不仅大大降低了阅读速度，而且阅读的乐趣也会因为注意力过度放在个别细节上而被大大抹杀了。为此我们

应该训练学生阅读汉语的整体意识，即阅读汉语时，逐句逐句地看，而不是逐字逐字地看。在各句使用相同语法结构的时候，只需要注意不同词语承载的不同信息；而且整句阅读也可以帮助学生及时抓住句子的主干，学生可以不必在每个细节过度花费时间，较快地获取信息。比如：在下面几句话的阅读中，鼓励学生有意识地寻找动词及语法结构词，在此过程中相似语法结构可以很快跳过并读至句尾，当学生形成了这样的阅读速度后，细节的信息其实并不会错过。

我有一个儿子和一个女儿。儿子叫小力，女儿叫开美。他们都在大学学习。小力喜欢中国文化，还喜欢哲学。他现在在中国北京语言大学学习中国文学。 我女儿开美喜欢历史，还喜欢经济。她现在是英国华威大学经济学院的学生。 (例三)

再如：下面例四的句子中的语法结构稍微复杂了一点，可是如果他们先把注意力放在主要动词‘看了’，和‘把……写在……上’就似乎把整个句子已经浏览了一遍了，在此过程中，‘图书馆’、‘本子’这样的词语也会整体地呈现，而不是一个字一个字地被分解出来。

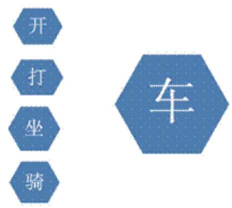
一个法国留学生看了北京图书馆的介绍，把主要的事儿写在他的本子上。 (例四)

3.3 培养学生的汉语阅读的分割意义单位的技能

我们在用任何语言进行阅读的时候都在不断地寻找意义单位，当我们比较准确地找到这样的单位的时候，我们其实是在把一个句子有意无意地分割开来。这种分割的过程在阅读欧洲语言时，由于每个词语之间都有空隙，似乎显得相对容易一些；然而在中文阅读时，因为这些空隙消失了，就给阅读者的意义分割造成了很大的困难。这种分割是必不可少的，可是在哪儿分割恰到好处呢，对于对外汉语的学生来说，这是一个需要培养的技能。比如，课堂上，我们把例五这个句子举出来，让学生在每个意义单位后划线，开始的时候他们可能比较慢，但是形成习惯后，他们阅读时眼球移动的速度就会快起来了，久而久之他们不必划线，也能把意义单位分割出来。

我<u>从</u> / 图书馆 / 取来 / 借书证 / 送给 / 妹妹<u>的时候</u>，她 / 非常 / 高兴，第二天 / <u>就 / 到</u> / 图书馆 / 借书 / <u>去</u>了。 (例五)

另外值得注意的是，在认识单个汉字的基础上，不忽视词语的教学，及时帮助学生把已经学过的汉字组合起来，增加词汇量的积累，这样当学生在阅读中看到这些词语的时候能够比较快捷地将它们看成一体，提高提取意义的速度。比如，当学到‘车’这个字的时候，我们可以将其扩展，可以结合学生学过的，也可以把相关的新词引进来，帮助学生建立一个围绕这个汉字的小网络，在阅读时帮助提高阅读速度。



（例六）

3.4 学生的反馈

在学期近尾声的时候，把练习过的阅读策略均列出，并让学生总结出这些策略的有效程度。这里引用四个学生反馈（英文为学生原话）：

反馈一：我学会了找出要点，而不非常看重我不认识的词（I learned to pick out the main points and not focus on the words I do not know）；

反馈二：我阅读快多了，并能抓住文章关键信息了（I become much quicker to read and sort out the key messages of the text）；

反馈三：（阅读时）更快，并帮助我读得更准确了（Faster and help me to be more precise）；

反馈四：（这些策略）可以使我们在学年中，而不是学年末就可以读大段文章（would definitely be useful to do some larger reading passages in class during the year）。

从学生的反馈中，可以看出策略教学有助于学生阅读技能的提高，而且我们可以把策略教学贯穿于学期中间，而不一定在学年快结束的时候才学习某种策略。

4. 结语

综上可以看出策略教学对于提高学生阅读能力是有一定的帮助作用的。当然这里我们强调策略教学并不是说我们要把它作为我们教学的重点。毋庸置疑，语言本体的教学应是教学重点，可是如果能在语言本体的教学中适当贯穿策略教学，就能对整个学习过程起到推动作用，也会帮助学生在对外汉语阅读中取得事半功倍的效果。

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Complementary Teaching Experience Exchange between Universities

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Abstract

With more and more continental European students coming to the UK learning Chinese as part of their degrees, the necessity for smooth connection between the two Chinese teaching approaches and pedagogies in their home countries and in the UK becomes obvious. A research between the University of Manchester and the Università degli Studi Roma Tre was carried out in March and April, 2012. By means of fieldwork observations, a focused group interview with language teachers and discussion with language learners, the findings of the research are categorized in three dimensions: deductive vs. inductive approach, information-based vs. scenario-based learning, and Chinese native speaker (NS) vs. non-native speaker (NNS) of language teachers. The results of the research suggest that inductive approach, if used appropriately, can be supplementary to deductive approach in teaching grammar, as it stimulates the active participation of the learner who draws the rule on the basis of his own comprehension path; more scenario-based situation can be provided for oral practice; workshops and seminars or language clinics can be regularly run by NNS of Chinese, as they have experienced the

learning and can tell exactly where students' language problems are and how to resolve them. Further research cooperation, such as sharing resources via e-learning, can be initiated and on a wider scale so that Chinese language teaching in the continental Europe and in the UK can be mutually facilitated.

Key words: deductive vs. inductive approach, scenario-based e-learning (SBeL), simulation-based learning

Introduction:

Recently, more and more students from continental Europe are coming to the UK for part of their degree studies. Particularly those who come to the University of Manchester (UoM) learning Chinese, their Chinese language levels are generally higher than the students in Manchester. One reason might be that there are more continental Europeans students wishing to come to the UK (because they can practice their English while doing their degree) than English students wishing to go to continental Europe (because they have to learn another language while doing their degree). Among many competitors wishing to come to the UK, those who are selected are stronger candidates, especially in terms of languages. In addition, the tuition fee and living expenses in the UK are higher than their home countries. Those who are determined to come have stronger motivations than the other candidates. Apart from the obvious reasons such as strong motivation and positive learning attitudes, there might probably be other factors leading to their high achievement in learning Chinese in their home countries. What are these factors and how to import these factors to improve our language teaching in the UoM? With these questions in mind, I proposed a research project, obtained the fund from UoM, contacted Dr Romagnoli in Italy for a detailed plan, and arrived in Rome in March, 2012. During the three weeks' research in Università degli Studi Roma Tre (UoR), I observed their classes from each tutor teaching Chinese, discussed with both tutors and students, and explored extensively on their curriculum, textbooks, pedagogy and rationale. I experienced how colleagues at the UoR prepared their lessons, how they delivered the classes, how the students responded, and what activities they were doing in class and outside the class.

At UoR, Chinese is taught within the degree course called "Languages and Cultural Mediation". Students are required to choose one European language plus another language (European or not, in the second case Arabic or Chinese). In particular, in each course of Chinese language at BA level, students have three teachers, two Chinese native speakers and an Italian tutor, for every of the three levels (first, second and third year). The language program in UoR includes only modern Chinese, in simplified form of writing. Apart from the language, our students have also courses in Chinese literature and history, with particular attention to the modern and contemporary periods.

At UoM, Chinese is taught within the degree course called Chinese Studies. Single-honor degree students learn Chinese only; while joint-degree students learn another language apart from Chinese. All language tutors are Chinese native speakers. Apart from language(s), students also learn Chinese history, Chinese economics, Chinese films, Classical Chinese and Business Chinese etc.

Having analyzed the commonalities and differences, we will report the discovery from the following three aspects:

The study:

Deductive approach vs. inductive approach

The first difference was that in UoR, grammar is usually taught using the inductive approach, that is giving examples first, asking students to generate rules from these examples and summarizing the rules at the end; whereas UoM is using deductive approach by giving grammatical rules first and illustrating the rules with some examples and students making up sentences using these rules.

An inductive approach (also called rule-discovery learning) works from the specific to the general (Felder & Henriques, 1995). Observations, measurements, or data are presented first and then rules, laws, concepts or theories are reasoned from them (Widodo, 2006). When teaching grammar, the teacher starts with presenting examples of sentences, and learners make sense of the grammatical rules from the examples. Student attention is focused on grammatical structure used in context so that students can consciously perceive the underlying patterns involved. for instance, to present the extended meaning of the compound directional complement, a list of sentences has been given and students have been requested to notice the features and infer the meaning.

e.g.起来，下去

听了他的话，大家都笑起来。

夏天到了，天气热起来了。

我明年还要在中国学习下去。

我们谈下去吧。

他的意见都说出来了。

他能叫出我们的名字来。

张教授讲的内容我们都记下来了。

这儿有纸，大家都把名字写下来。

A deductive approach (also called rule driven learning) works from the general to the specific (Widodo, 2006). Rules, principles, concepts, or theories are presented first, and then applied to sentences. When teaching grammar, a grammar rule is explicitly presented to students and followed by practicing these rules (Fortune, 1992). Around a new grammar rules, a teacher presents related grammatical rules, and gives example sentences, involving students' comprehension and allowing learners to have a chance to personalize the rules. Once learners understand rules, they are to apply the rules to example sentences and make up sentences on their own.

e.g.起来 to start and continue: 唱起来，跳起来

下去 already started and continue：说下去，讲下去

The advantages of inductive approach are that learners are more active in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients. The approach involves learners' pattern-recognition and problem solving abilities in which particular learners are interested in this challenge and therefore more motivated. With inductive approach, learners are trained to be familiar with the rule discovery, which could possibly enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance. Learners' greater degree of cognitive depth is exploited.

Teaching grammar is usually considered a quite teacher-centered activity, with students passively 'digest' ready- made rules and patterns. Conceived in this passive way, and adding the fact that the language used in this lesson is usually the one of the learners, that is, in UoR case, Italian, grammar lesson has no particular benefit, except for the fact of justifying Italian teacher's presence in class. Therefore, inductive approach turns to be a way to make this lesson more learner- oriented. Students feel more involved in the learning process because encountering a new structure they should at the same time elaborate by themselves a path to understand and use it, without somebody who does the work for them.

However, because students are generating the rules and learning the rules implicitly, it is challenging for the students' cognitive development. When they are applying various rules, they may not in fact thoroughly understand the concepts involved. The approach is also time and energy-consuming as it leads learners to the appropriate concept of the rules. The approach can place a burden on teachers by choosing carefully from the relevant data or materials, which has to be the right level. The approach may frustrate the learners if the rules are too hard for students to generate. Students might learn by rote memorizing numerous examples of a structure until the use of that structure became automatic. They are not consciously aware of what structure they are learning unless at the end of the lesson the teacher gives them the appropriate rule to describe what they have already supposedly learned (Shaffer, 1989).

The deductive approach goes straightforwardly to the point. Rules, such as forms can be clearly explained than elicited from examples. A number of direct practice/application examples are immediately given. Deductive approach learns the rule in the context of formal instruction, know about the rule explicitly; however, deductive approach is likely to lead to a teacher-fronted transmission-style classroom and passive learning.

The issue of the advantages and disadvantages of both the methods can be traced back to the 'controversy between inductive and deductive approach'. As early as in 1975, Hammerly stated that the dichotomy is completely unnecessary since "certain structures are most amenable to a deductive approach while others- many others- can be learned very well by an inductive approach" (p.17). If we agree with this position and deny the validity of any polarization of the issue, than the problem for a Chinese language teacher is to identify the structures requiring the deductive approach. According to Hammerly (1975), "the grammatical points that benefit from a deductive approach are generally points based on concepts lacking in the native language and which cannot be made readily clear by a limited number of examples or practiced in relatively simple exercises" (p. 18). If the standard to choose the deductive approach is the typological distance between the languages, then almost everything in Chinese should be taught following a deductive approach, turning back to a quite traditional method of given rules and patterns. It is a matter of fact that Italian is very different from Chinese in that Chinese does not exhibit the Italian flexibility of word order, nor Italian have items such 'ba' structure, directional complements, resultative complements, a system of classifiers, particles etc. What it is preferable to teach, either by using inductive or deductive approach, is still open to debate. Further research on comparing, on a case by case basis, the two methods is needed.

Information-based learning vs. scenario-based learning (SBeL)

Another difference between two universities teaching models is that UoR uses scenario-based learning for oral practice (4 hours per week) without a textbook; whereas, UoM uses information-based learning approach, centering round the textbook and organize students to use the vocabulary and sentence patterns learnt from the text.

SBeL is a way of learning in which a scenario is given, serving the basis in tasks accomplishment and further discussions (Morton and Jack, 2005). SBeL involves a real-world situation which allows learners to explore resources according to their subject view of what they wish to learn. In an interactive environment with authentic and meaningful tasks distributed in a non-linear way, students can practice on realistic activities with different behavioral paths.

For example, one of the topics in UoR was buying a gift for the teacher. Students acted as a drama, taking a bus to town (to practice turn left, turn right); bargaining (to practice the money system and calculation for the change); and presenting the gift to the teacher (to practice preference—likes and dislikes). Throughout the drama, all the students were involved in the performance. The atmosphere of learning and the engagement of practice were indeed impressive.

The advantage of SBeL is that it focuses on contextual learning, since it uses authentic activities that can improve communication skills and cultural knowledge. Paulus, Horvitz and Shi (2006) advocated that learning must be provided in a context in which a story offers useful advice or modeling that helps students to achieve their goals of solving tasks. However, because it is textbook-free, linguistic knowledge and sentence structures might not be systematic or structured nor can, or very hardly, tested or reinforced by other teachers' activities. In addition, what students use once needs to be recycled and reinforced; however in SBeL, the settings, context and scenarios are different each time. The teacher needs to arrange a thread to go through all these activities for language learning purposes.

Information-based learning is to obtain information from texts, (Thornbury, 2005, p7). The learners communicate with texts in the process of 'unpacking' or 'unlocking' the information conveyed by texts. With information-based approach, language learning is aesthetically patterned artifact endowed with the knowledge potentials philosophy, culture, morality, and humanities (Ganakumaran 2003). It involves critical concepts, language conventions and metalanguage and the students are able to use such terms and concepts in talking and writing. This approach is a way of teaching knowledge about the language (Carter, et. al, 2011).

Information-based learning stresses that the information within the text is seen as more important than the language. Students should understand the overall meaning of a text instead of the finer points of detail (Marina and Marmiene, 2006). Language learning is primarily aimed at getting the information, and therefore text should be used as a vehicle for information. Handling lexical and grammatical issues is necessary to the extent of ensuring information comprehension. Thus, information-based learning is not the aim but a means of helping students to improve information comprehension.

Information-based activities may include various tasks and assignments based on transformation or reconstruction of the particular texts, focusing on text analysis from the outlined perspectives and involving the use of synonyms, paraphrasing, gap-filling, text reconstruction, etc. The essential features of a connected text helping students to raise their awareness of its structure and organization and to develop their information processing skills.

Unlike SBeL learning where activities are creative and thought-provoking, information-based learning is more serious and systematic but students might passively receive the information and become dependent on teachers' explanation.

Native speaker (NS) vs. non-native speaker (NNS) of Chinese language teachers

Another thing that surprised me was that out of five tutors teaching Chinese in UoR, two are Italian, which means that 40% are NNS of Chinese. Whereas in UoM, all our Chinese language tutors are Chinese NS, and it is presumed that Chinese should be taught by NS of Chinese. However, dwelling upon the difference and think of the seminars and conferences on Chinese language teaching, recently there are more and more NNS of Chinese, who are sharing the experience of teaching Chinese with Chinese NS. It might become worthwhile exploring the advantages and disadvantages of NS and NNS teaching Chinese.

In this study, a Chinese NS is broadly defined as born and brought up in China; while a NNS is defined as a teacher for whom the language is a second or foreign language; who works in that language environment; whose students are monolingual groups of learners; and who speaks the same native language as his/her students.

Arguments in favour or against NS and NNS have been tossed back and forth (Liu, 1999; Medgyes, 1992). So far the role played by non native speakers language teachers has been discussed with reference to English teaching (Mahboob, 2010). Some view the NS-NNS dichotomy as discrete (NS or NNS), competitive (NS vs. NNS), or subtractive (strengths minus weaknesses), integrative (NS and NNS), cooperative (mutual sharing), and additive (NS strengths plus NNS strengths) (Matsuda, 1999). Some put considerable effort into bringing more visibility to NNS teachers and into giving them a voice in the profession, considering that their strengths are still somewhat unknown and their potential and contribution to the language teaching field underestimated. Others concentrate on maximising the strengths of NS and NNS teachers through mutual sharing of linguistic, cultural, and educational insights within a model of joint collaboration (Matsuda and Matsuda, 2001).

Among these research, Reves and Medgyes (1994) conducted a large-scale survey to teachers in ten different countries (91.7% of whom were NNS teachers). The results reveal that these NNS teachers had a greater awareness of the mechanisms involved in language acquisition and use, as well as a superior capacity to assess the students' potential and to anticipate their possible areas of difficulty. However, on the other hand, the NNS teachers' limited knowledge of the language (compared with NS) caused them to favour the isolated practice of linguistic elements or in restricted linguistic contexts.

Árva and Medgyes (2000) investigated the diverse traits of NS and NNS teachers and of their pedagogical behaviour and have highlighted the differences in linguistic competence, teaching behaviours and working attitudes with students.

NS have better linguistic competence, since they learn the language from infancy. NS are people with subconscious knowledge of rules, an intuitive grasp of meaning, ability to communicate within various social settings, a range of language skills and creativity of language use. This view is supported by Medgyes (1999) who claim that NSs speak their mother tongue and can be error-free. They use it as a natural means of communication in class and provide the students with more cultural insights and were thus used by the learners as rich sources of cultural information. Because of their linguistic and communicative competence of the language (since it is their mother tongue), they can thus use it with greater spontaneity and naturalness in a considerable variety of situations, such as newspaper clippings, photocopies, posters, realia and seldom stuck to what the textbook dictated. On the other hand, NNS teachers learned through study and effort, which disallows spontaneity and certain types of vocabulary (Árva and Medgyes, 2000). Their linguistic competence was also very much influenced by textbook language, as they used the latter to provide linguistic models to their students.

As for teaching behaviours: NNS teachers have a far superior metacognitive knowledge of the grammar. NNS prepared their lessons meticulously and more professionally and followed textbooks faithfully; whereas some NS teachers stated: "This is wrong and this is the correct way you should say it, I know, but I can't explain why it's wrong or right" (Árva and Medgyes, 2000). NS's acquisition of grammar is being largely unconscious. They may lack the necessary meta-language to do so, although this does not mean that they are less capable of making judgments than NNS who are more familiar with the formal aspects of the language they use. NS were perceived as largely unaware of the internal mechanisms directing language use and, therefore, less able to give their students relevant information about the target language.

Knowledge of grammar is often a source of pride of NNS (Maddrid and Canado, 2004), since they have studied it in depth and they are capable of providing scientific explanations for the constructions and use of the language. NNS have amassed a wealth of knowledge about the language during their own learning process and are of useful resource to guide a metalinguistic reflection about how language works and to possibly overcome linguistic interference mistakes. Their antennae can intercept as a possible source of problems even the minutest item which NNS may take no notice of. NS have better intuitions about what is right and wrong in language use, NNS have deeper insights into what is easy and difficult in the learning process. NNSs are intrinsically more perceptive about language difficulties than NS. For NNSs to discover trouble spots requires little time and energy.

With regard to working attitudes with students: NS teachers were more lenient with student mistakes and casual in giving their lessons. NNS can provide a better learner model: a language model and a learner model. They were learners just like their students, although at a higher level. Because of their learning experience, NNS teach language-learning strategies more effectively: As a successful learner, NNS is supposed to be conscious strategy users, able to tell which strategies have worked for them and which have not. NNS supply more information about the language: they stand a better chance of sensitizing their students to the employment of strategies than their native speaking colleagues do. NNS better anticipate and prevent language difficulties: Their ability consists in imparting their own learning experiences as well as providing assistance for students to discover their strategies that should work specifically for them. NNS were found to be more insightful than NS.

NNS are more sensitive to their students' needs and benefit from their ability to use the students' mother tongue. The NNS teaching in a monolingual class has far more background information about their students than even the most well-informed NS. Indirectly, this knowledge is instrumental in enhancing the teacher's capacity to anticipate and prevent cross-cultural difficulties. NNS are in a position to set realistic aims for students. They are also better able to gauge the level of motivation that students are studying. Due to their deeper understanding of the prevalent circumstances, NNS are usually stricter with students than their NS colleagues. L1 is the most genuine vehicle of communication between NNS and their students in the monolingual classroom.

Communication in a foreign language involves both NS-NNS and NNS-NS interactions (Alptekin, 2002). These interactions will reflect diverse cultural backgrounds, different learning objectives and different attitudes towards the particular second language which serves as a medium of mutual comprehension. Therefore, it is essential to adopt instructional methods and design teaching materials that will acknowledge these differences and will give NNS a more active role in the development of the desired language standards they want to reach (Andreou and Galantomos, 2009).

Discussion and conclusion:

This study has revealed that both deductive vs. inductive approach, information-based vs. scenario-based learning, and NS and NNS Chinese language teachers are contributing to the language teaching with their own merits.

This study suggests that whether grammatical rules are taught inductively or deductively rely upon the structures to be taught. When the grammatical structures are recognizable and generable, inductive approach might be a better choice because students can have a chance to make sense of the rules on their own, which is helpful for their cognitive development. When the structures are sophisticated, a deductive approach can be adopted to avoid confusion and not to discourage students with complexities.

Language is a tool after all. It is the information that readers are seeking by means of language. Being systematic and well-organized, information-based learning approach can be used for instruction and guidance reading comprehension. Complimentary to information-based learning, SBeL can be used from language practice especially for oral practice, as it is based on real-life situation, requires spontaneous responses and arouses students' interests. If the activities and topics are arranged parallel to the textbook, students can apply the vocabulary and sentence structures learnt from the text into their oral production.

The cooperation and collaboration between NS and NNS teachers can foster more educationally, contextually, and socially appropriate language learning opportunities. On a micro level, language learners can gain access to a wider sociolinguistic and intercultural repertoire (Moussu and Llurda, 2008); on a macro level, it lends further support to the establishment of a professional milieu that welcomes ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity (Selvi, 2011).

From methodologies to theories of language study, NS occupies a basic position as a springboard for the judgement of language production and evaluation. The major conviction behind the NS is that they can at anytime give valid and stable judgements and identify ill-formed grammatical expressions in their mother tongue. NNS can contribute by sharing their learning experience with students. In addition, NNS can also be invited for regulate seminars on a specific topic such as pronunciation or character recognition. NNS can be arranged in a language clinic as well, as they are able to diagnose and explain exactly why the language are ill-formed and point out the way to cure the problems.

Apart from the three aspects discussed above, further research cooperation, such as sharing resources via e-learning, can be initiated and on a wider scale so that Chinese language teaching in the continental Europe and in the UK can be mutually facilitated.

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日本大学生的课堂注意力特征及有针对性的汉语教学

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Abstract

To improve the effectiveness of teaching Chinese language, it is important to make the students concentrate in the classroom. This paper argues that there are two main factors which mostly influence the students' attention. One is the internal factor, mainly referring to the motivation of the students who choose Chinese as a second foreign language; the other one is the external factor, mainly referring to the habits of the students formed in certain circumstances. Basing on the experiences of long-term Chinese language teaching and observing the concentration patterns of the college students in the classroom, this paper concludes that, for these concentration characteristics, using well-written Chinese language teaching materials, combined with appropriate teaching methods, we can expect a better teaching result.

一、引言

第二外语教学和第一外语教学的目的相同，即同样是让学生掌握一门外语。然而，第二外语教学所占的课时十分有限，因此必须更加重视教学效果。提高第二外语教学效果有多种方法。其中一个有效的方法是，合理编写有针对性的汉语教材。日本的大学课时一般是一节课 90 分钟。在这 90 分钟里，学生一直保持高度的注意力是不可能的。学生的注意力是有阶段性的，或者说是有周期性的。其周期性的特征与很多种因素有关，比如，选修第二外语的动机，生长环境中形成的习惯等等。本文考察了日本大学生的注意力的特征，认为在进行汉语教学的时候，

有必要考虑到这种特征，从而取得更佳的教学效果。

二、影响日本大学生课堂注意力的相关因素

（一）内在因素

影响日本大学生课堂注意力的内在因素主要指学生在选修汉语作为第二外语时的动机。通过多年的问卷调查，我们发现学生的选修动机是多种多样的。主要可以分为以下几类。

1 对中国的历史和文化感兴趣
2 为了拿学分
3 对将来的工作有助益
4 周围的人选修了汉语
5 在高中学过古汉语
6 汉语比其他外语好学
7 喜欢汉字
8 和中国人交朋友
9 以后去中国旅行
10 其他

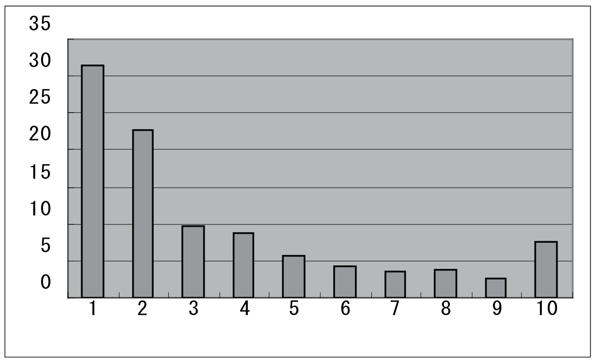

图 1　日本大学生选修中文的动机调查

各个选项相对于整体的百分比如图 1 所示。从图中可以看出，选修中文的动机主要集中在前三项，分别占 32%，23%，10%。仔细分析一下，我们会发现，项目 1“对中国的历史和文化感兴趣”，项目 3“对将来的工作有助益”，项目 7“喜欢汉字”，项目 8“和中国人交朋友”，项目 9 “以后去中国旅行”，属于积极动机，而项目 2“为了拿学分”，项目 4“周围的人选修了汉语”，项目 5“在高中学过古汉语”，项目 6“汉语比其他外语好学”则属于消极动机。一般来说，动机积极的学生学习热情高，提问比较主动，课堂注意力也比较集中，相反，动机消极的学生各方面要显得被动一些，课堂注意力也不太集中。

（二）外在因素

外在因素又可以分为课堂内因素和课堂外因素。课堂内因素主要是指学生进入教室以后，在教室这个封闭环境中的一些随机因素，包括授课内容和讲义构成方面的因素，以及环境因素，

比如小声说话，教师讲课声音的大小，甚至好友的缺席也会对学生的注意力产生影响。课堂外因素主要是指学生在某种特定的成长环境中受到某种影响而形成的习惯，这个习惯对学生在课堂上的注意力会产生一定影响。

对于学生自身的内在因素，我们无法改变，然而通过对外在因素的分析，了解其特征，则对汉语教材的编写和教学效果的提高很有帮助。

三、日本大学生课堂注意力的特征

通过长期的教学经验的积累，我们发现日本大学生在课堂上的注意力有其独特的特征。该特征大致可以分为以下三类。

（一）周期性特征

在日本，电视对人们的日常生活产生着深远的影响。根据日本内阁府 2006 年的调查，日本的电视普及率达到 99.4%。1975 年已经超过 98%。（注 1）另外，根据 2005 年法国嘎纳国际电视节目展览会（MIPTV）的数据，日本人平均每天看电视的时间为 5 小时零 1 分，居世界首位。第二位的是美国，平均时间为 4 小时 46 分，世界的平均时间为 3 小时 16 分。中国是 2 小时 30 分。（注 2）特别值得一提的是，在日本很多儿童每天大量的时间是在电视机前度过的，这样的儿童被称为“电视孩子”（テレビっ子）。由于电视的商业性质，在播放节目时需要插播大量的广告。在日本，每次广告的时间一般是 15 秒的倍数。大多是 1 分到两分钟不等。（注 3）大至每间隔 15 分钟插播一次。插播广告的时候，大多数人的无意识行为是换频道。这样，无论是行为的连续性或者思维的连续性都会受到破坏。重复的次数多了就会形成一种习惯，形成一种固定的行动模式。本文假设这种习惯或者行动模式对长时间看电视的人的注意力会产生影响，有可能将注意力切分为以 15 分钟为间隔的片断。换一句话说，注意力可以是一个以 15 分钟为周期的连续。在实际的教学过程中，对课堂注意力 15 分钟周期试用的结果，我们不能断定 15 分钟一定是最精确的注意力周期，但是这个 15 分钟周期的教学效果明显好于 20 分钟周期或者 30 分钟周期。

（二）衰减特征

通过观察，我们发现学生的注意力在每个 15 分钟周期内也不是均衡的，而是一个由高到低的衰减过程。以语法讲解为对象，我们做过下面的调查。每次 15 分钟的语法讲义各设 5 个问题。每讲 3 分钟提一个问题，让学生们将答案记在问卷上。这种测试多次反复之后，我们

发现学生的答案的正确率会有一个收敛。收敛的结果是，第一个 3 分钟的答案的正确率约为 75%，第二个 3 分钟的正确率约为 80%，达到峰值，第三个 3 分钟的正确率开始下降，约为 70%，第四个 3 分钟的正确率有明显的下降，约为 50%，第五个三分钟的正确率最低，约为 40%。这种变化也可以用下图表示一般可以认为注意力的集中程度与答案正确率之间存在相关性，注意力越集中，正确率也越高。

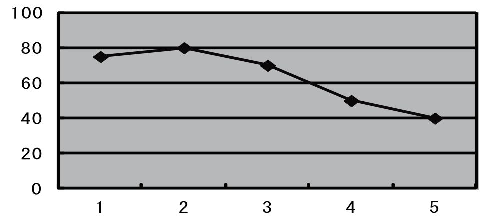

图 2　课堂注意力的变化

（三）兴趣特征

学生在上课的时候，汉语课能否引起学生们的兴趣与学生的注意力能否集中有一定的关系。一般来讲，学生越感兴趣，他们的注意力也越集中，否则注意力很容易分散。从内容来看，学生对影视资料，与学生相关的话题以及会话等比较感兴趣，而对单词和语法讲解则不太感兴趣。从形式来看，学生对任务教学的参与型课题比较感兴趣，而对传统的被动听讲与强记方式不太感兴趣。

四、教材内容的合理配置

根据前面提到的日本大学生注意力的三个特征，吴凌非编写了针对这些特征的汉语教材《ジョイフル中国語》。

首先，针对注意力的周期性特征，《ジョイフル中国語》每课的内容主要分为 6 个部分，即：单词部分，课文部分，语法部分，语序部分，重点小段对话部分以及课堂练习部分。这样设置的理由是：在日本，大学的每节课时一般为 90 分钟。以 15 分钟为一个周期，一节课则可分为 6 个周期。按每个周期内完成一个小课题来算，每节课准备 6 个小课题较为理想。

针对注意力的衰减特征，《ジョイフル中国語》将每个部分的重点内容都尽量安排在前半部分。由于我们人是生物，当然摆脱不了生物的规律，人的注意力也应该有生物节奏方面的特征。虽然不同的场合，注意力的波动多少会有差异，但是经过我们的长期观察发现，大学生们在每个 15 分钟周期里面，其注意力会出现波动。6 分钟左右到达高峰，随后开始衰减。根据这

一现象，将相对重要的部分放在前半段，将次重要的内容放在后半段是合理的。

针对注意力的兴趣特征，应该在教材内容和教学方式这两个方面予以重视。在内容上，《ジョイフル中国語》对内容的趣味性十分重视。教材共有 15 课。课文涉及到的话题可分为幽默类（第一课 两只蜡烛，第四课 我不是她的父亲，第七课 新婚，第九课 新总裁，第十课 珍贵的鱼，第十五课 盖了帽了），思考类（第六课 悲观与乐观，第八课 困难与成功），成语故事类（第二课 一模一样，第三课 成语故事，第十三课 梁启超的故事），情感类（第十一课 请你进箱子里去，第十二课 我爱你，第十四课 妈妈，你在哪里呀？）以及最新流行题材类（第五课 Happy 牛 year）。

除了教材的趣味性以外，注重教学方法也是提高学生课堂注意力的一个手段。教学方法上将任务教学法和传统教学法结合起来是一个可行的尝试。

任务教学法（task-based approach）是一种建立在“结构主义”（constructivism）理论基础上的教学法。这种理论认为，学生知识的获得主要不是靠教师传授，而是学习者在一定的情境（即社会文化背景）下，借助他人（包括教师和学习伙伴）的帮助，利用必要的学习资料，通过意义建构方式获得。建构既是对新知识意义的 建构，同时又包含对原有经验的改造和重组。其原则是：学生的学习活动与任务或问题相结合，以探索问题来引导和维持学习者的学习兴趣和动机；创建真实的教学环境，让学生带着真实的任务去学习。在这个过程中，学生拥有学习的主动权，教师能动地引导和激励，使学生真正掌握所学内容，并通过任务举一反三。任务型教学是指根据现实生活的交际需要确定语言学习任务，由学生围绕这一任务制订计划并通过自己的努力去实现计划、完成任务，而且在这一过程中不断评估自己的学习 。具体地讲，它以学生为中心，以任务为动力、手段和目标，学生在实践中运用已有的知识、技能，获得新知识和提高技能。

任务型教学把语言教学真实化和课堂社会化，其主要目的是让学生不仅在运用中学，而且为了运用而学，直接通过课堂教学让学生去用所学的外语完成各种情景中真实的生活、学习、工作等任务，从而培养学生综合应用外语的能力。可以说，任务型教学充分体现了学生的主体性，增强了临场感，是一种行之有效的教学方式。

具体的任务教学模式有所差别，但它们所依据的都是英国语言学家 Jane Willis(1996) 提出的任务学习法的理论框架。概括地讲，它分为以下三个步骤。

1. 前任务：教师引入任务，呈现完成任务所需的知识，介绍任务的要求和实施任务的步骤。

2. 任务环：以个人、双人、小组等形式执行各项任务，小组向班级报告任务完成的情况。

3. 后任务：由分析（学生分析并评价其他各组执行任务的情况）和操练（学生在教师指导下练习语言难点）两部分组成。

任务型教学的关键在于任务设计。任务的设计必须具有意义性、可操作性、真实性、差距性和拓展性等。

岳守国（2002）进一步认为“任务语言教学法是指以完成交际任务为教学目标的外语教学

方法。与以语言结构为中心的教学法相比，它为激活学习过程提供了更好的语境，已成为国外语言教学法主流的一部分。在任务教学中，尽可能与别人进行口语交流是习得语言的基础。该法重视听说能力的提高，吸收、综合了其它现行教学法的精华，有广阔的应用前景。”由于任务教学法中设定的任务（task），都是实际生活中各种场景的缩影，导入这种教学方法，学生可以主动参与，临场感强，因此也易于提高学生学习兴趣。其结果，学生可以积累接近实际生活的语言经验。唯一不足的是，这种教学方法与实际场景在时间的消耗上几乎是等比例的，过多地导入这种方法，对于以第二外语教学为主的汉语教学是不现实的。因此传统的教学方式对于汉语教学依然是不可缺少的。

然而现代的主流教学法中，对传统教学方式执否定态度的学者比较多。例如，张建伟（1999）指出传统教学方法有以下几种缺陷。

1 理智上独立性与自主性的欠缺

2 思维能力的薄弱

3 对知识的掌握停留在初级水平上，难以产生广泛、灵活的迁移

4 学生不爱学习，不会学习

然而不可否认的是传统教学方法可以在短时间内大量地高密度地学到外语的语汇知识和语法知识，对于课时配备少的第二外语教学来说，不失为一种依然行之有效的教学方法。当然，这样段时间大量记忆下来的书本知识，在反馈到实际的语言生活中的时候，用法与场景的对应往往会出现差错。在国外生活过的人都会感觉到，在国外生活的时间再长，对于没有经历过的事情，往往难以准确表达。从这种意义上来讲，语言与其说是一种普遍的与生俱来的能力，不如说是一种环境的产物。

在使用《ジョイフル中国語》的时候，单词学习部分以传统教学方法的背为主，课文内容理解以任务教学法的任务设定为主，两者结合起来可以取得较佳的学习与教学效果。

五、结语

语言观对于语言教学是至关重要的，这一点已经有很多论文做过论述。语言观可以有很多种。如果我们认为语言是一种人生来具有的能力，那么如何唤起沉睡在大脑里的语言块将是语言教学的主要内容。如果认为语言是一种经验，那么与现实生活场景密切相关的任务教学则是主攻方向。如果认为语言是一种记忆与记忆的释放，我们同样可以沿着这条传统的教学方法走下去。特别是将记忆变为定向记忆，对记忆的释放作合理的筛选，教学效果将会得到很大的提高。可以认为，三种语言观下的教学法的融会贯通将是今后语言教学研究的大趋势。

本文具体通过对日本大学生在学汉语时课堂上的注意力特征的观察，认为其注意力有周期性特征，衰减特征和兴趣特征。针对这些特征编写汉语教材，结合不同的授课方式，合理地安

排授课内容是很重要的也是很有效的。

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[注 1]（http://www.esri.cao.go.jp/）

[注 2]（http://ja.wikipedia.org/wiki/）

[注 3]（http://www.nowdo.com/production/cm_sound.htm）

非目的语环境下汉语学习策略与汉语成绩关系研究

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摘　要：本文简述了汉语学习策略研究情况，借用 Oxford 的学习策略量表，通过调查和访谈，得出了非目的语环境下汉语学习策略与汉语成绩的关系。经对 151 名被试的调查数据统计分析，得出了认知策略、社交策略、元认知策略和记忆策略、补偿策略与汉语成绩相关，情感策略与汉语成绩不相关等结论，并提出了非目的语环境下汉语教学的相关建议。

关键词：汉语学习策略，汉语成绩，非目的语环境

1. 研究背景

1.1 关于汉语学习策略研究与汉语学习成绩关系的研究背景

汉语作为第二语言的学习策略研究始于上个世纪九十年代，它以曹乃云（1994）所著论文《外国人如何学中文》为标志（注释 1）。专家学者们先后发表了关于汉语学习策略的研究论文，这些论文是在汉语作为目的语环境和汉语作为非目的语环境两个背景下进行的。

1.2 关于汉语学习策略的研究情况

本文从目的语环境和非目的语环境两个角度就汉语学习策略研究情况予以简要介绍（注释2）。

1.2.1 目的语环境下的研究概况

在目的语环境下，很多学者针对在中国学习汉语的外国留学生汉语学习策略进行了有价值的研究。曹乃云 (1994) 研究了一名德国籍留学生的汉语学习策略，以数据和图表形式记录和总结了该生反复写的汉语学习策略；徐子亮 (1999) 调查访谈了 60 名留学生的汉语学习策略，总结出了他们使用的有选择的注意策略等七种汉语学习策略；徐子亮 (2002) 还分析了两种不同的第二语言习得中的学习策略；江新 (2000)、吴勇毅 (2007) 使用 Oxford 的量表，分别对 107 名、535 名留学生进行了汉语学习策略调查，得出了学生们最常用的学习策略和最不常用的学习策略。此外，杨翼 (1998)、洪丽芬 (1997)、钱玉莲 (2006) 等很多学者就汉语学习策略进行了开创性和有价值的研究。

1.2.2 非目的语环境下的研究概况

与目的语环境下汉语学习策略研究情况相比，非目的语环境下汉语学习策略的研究论文不是很多。学者郭志岩（2012）在英国对 36 名初级水平学生进行了汉字学习策略情况调查；Roldán (2010) 在西班牙对 39 名西班牙学生开展了汉语学习策略调查；孙永红（2012）（Sun Yonghong2011a，2011b，2011c）在保加利亚对 128 名研究生和大学生、148 名中学生进行了汉语学习策略使用情况调查，得出了保加利亚学生汉语学习策略情况，并比较了研究生、大学生和中学生汉语学习策略的异同。这些研究也均用科学的数据说明了非目的语环境下的学生们的汉语学习策略情况，对非目的语环境下汉语教和学的研究提供了实证结论和依据。

1.3 汉语学习策略研究与汉语成绩关系的研究概说

学者们对目的语环境下和非目的语环境下汉语学习策略进行了广泛而深入的研究，但是关于汉语学习策略和学习成绩关系的研究并不多见，尽管杨翼 (1998)、江新 (2000) 和吴勇毅 (2007) 等学者做了相关研究，但他们的研究是在目的语环境下进行的，本项研究则是在非目的语环境——保加利亚进行的。本研究在调查统计了高分组和低分组学生的汉语学习策略情况后，得出了汉语学习策略和汉语学习成绩的关系，期望研究结果对非目的语环境下的汉语教学有所启示。

2. 研究问题

本文研究的问题是：（1）非目的语环境下高分组和低分组汉语学习策略有何不同？（2）非目的语环境下学生的汉语学习策略与汉语成绩的关系如何？

3. 研究方法和调查过程

本研究借用 Oxford(1990) 设计的语言学习策略量表，在保加利亚开设汉语专业和开设汉语课的大学和中学开展了问卷调查。该汉语学习策略调查量表包括六种学习策略，它们分别是：记忆策略、认知策略、补偿策略、元认知策略、情感策略和社交策略。被试的汉语水平涵盖了初级、中级和高级三种。调查在教室中进行。所有被试在 5 分制的李克特量表上评价各种汉语学习策略陈述的内容与自己学习汉语时的符合程度。调查结束后的数月里，一方面，结合问卷答题内容进行了个别访谈，另一方面，与被试的汉语老师了解了被试的汉语学习情况和汉语成绩。所有被试的汉语成绩均以调查实施以后的数次汉语考试的平均分或者期末 / 年度考试为依据。为了确保被试的汉语成绩能够真实反映被试的实际汉语水平，笔者还请中国籍和保加利亚籍的任课教师们逐一对每位被试的成绩进行了客观认证和评价。参考保加利亚学分系统评定标准，本研究将被试分为高分组和低分组两组。汉语成绩为 2-3 分者为低分组，汉语成绩为 5-6 分者为高分组。基于这个成绩划分标准，共有 151 份有效调查问卷符合要求，其中男生 37 名，女生 114 名；低分组有 45 人，高分组有 106 人。所有被试均为非华裔，最小年龄 13 岁，最大年龄 33 岁，平均年龄 18 岁。母语均为拼音文字，其中母语为保加利亚语的被试为 135 人，母语为其他的被试为 16 人（被试的情况见表 1）。被试的汉语学习策略使用情况经 SPSS 计算得出。得分越高，表明被试使用汉语学习策略的频率和程度越高。

表 1　被试基本情况 (N=151)

	性　别		母　语		组　别	
分　类	男	女	保语	其他	低分组	高分组
人　数	37	114	135	16	45	106
所占百分比	24.5%	75.5%	89.4%	10.6%	29.8%	70.2%

4. 研究结果

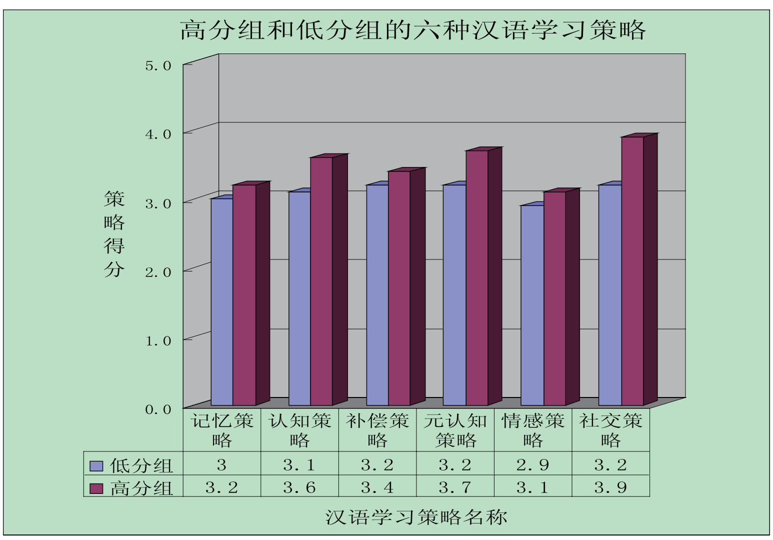
4.1 非目的语环境下高分组和低分组汉语学习策略有何不同？

计算结果显示，低分组的汉语学习策略平均得分为 3.1 分，高分组的汉语学习策略平均得分为 3.5 分。

两组的六种策略得分如图表 1 所示：低分组记忆策略得分为 3.0 分（SD=.70），高分组记忆策略得分为 3.2 分（SD=.57）；低分组认知策略得分为 3.1 分（SD=.70），高分组认知策略得分为 3.6 分（SD=.58）；低分组补偿策略得分为 3.2 分（SD=.68），高分组补偿策略得分为 3.4 分（SD=.60）；低分组元认知策略得分为 3.2 分（SD=.94），高分组元认知策略得分为 3.7 分（SD=.81）；低分组情感策略得分为 2.9 分（SD=.85），高分组情感策略得分为 3.1 分（SD=.70）；低分组社交策略得分为 3.2 分（SD=.90），高分组社交策略得分为 3.9 分（SD=.79）。

对被试在六种策略的平均数进行方差分析的结果显示，高分组和低分组的认知策略差异非常显着（F（1,149）=25.21，p<0.01），高分组和低分组的元认知策略差异非常显着（F（1,149）=14.05，p<0.01），高分组和低分组的社交策略差异非常显着（F（1,149）=22.16，p<0.01）；但是，高分组和低分组的记忆策略无显着差异（F（1,149）=2.99，p>0.05），高分组和低分组的补偿策略无显着差异（F（1,149）=2.58，p>0.05），高分组和低分组的情感策略无显着差异（F（1,149）=1.02，p>0.05）。

图表 1　高分组和低分组汉语学习策略异同



	记忆策略	认知策略	补偿策略	元认知策略	情感策略	社交策略
低分组	3	3.1	3.2	3.2	2.9	3.2
高分组	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.7	3.1	3.9

综上可见，无论是从总体汉语学习策略的使用情况上看，还是从六种汉语学习策略的使用情况上看，高分组使用的频率和程度都要高于低分组。高分组和低分组在认知策略、元认知策略、社交策略的使用上存在显着差异，在记忆策略、补偿策略和情感策略的使用上无显着差异。

4.2 非目的语环境下学生的汉语学习策略与汉语成绩的关系如何？

经统计和计算，被试的六种汉语学习策略使用情况和汉语学习成绩的相关系数如表 2 所示，与汉语成绩相关系数最高的是认知策略，相关系数为 .456 (P<0.01)；与汉语成绩相关系数第二高的是社交策略，相关系数为 .437 (P<0.01) ；与汉语成绩相关系数排名第三的是元认知策略，相关系数为 .384 (P<0.01)。以上三种学习策略在 0.01 水平上均与汉语成绩呈显着正相关。

表 2 汉语学习策略与汉语成绩相关情况

汉语学习策略与汉语成绩相关系数 (N=151)		
策略名称	相关系数	P 值
记忆策略	.200*	.014
认知策略	.456**	.000
补偿策略	.190*	.020
元认知策略	.384**	.000
情感策略	.142	.083
社交策略	.437**	.000

** 在 0.01 水平上相关显着（双尾）。

* 在 0.05 水平上相关显着（双尾）。

记忆策略与学习成绩相关系数为 .200，两者显着正相关 (P<0.05)；补偿策略与学习成绩的相关系数为 .190，两者显着正相关（P<0.05）。这两种策略在 0.05 水平上与汉语学习成绩呈显着正相关。情感策略与学习成绩的相关系数为 .142 (P>0.05)，这表明情感策略与汉语学习成绩不相关。

皮尔逊相关系数显示：六种汉语学习策略中有五种学习策略与汉语成绩呈显着正相关，它们从高到低分别是认知策略、社交策略、元认知策略和记忆策略、补偿策略。只有一种学习策略，即情感策略与汉语成绩不相关。

5. 结论

5.1 关于非目的语环境下高分组和低分组学生的汉语学习策略不同之处

无论从总体汉语学习策略的使用情况上看，还是从汉语学习策略的具体使用情况上看，高分组使用的学习策略的频率和程度都要高于低分组。高分组和低分组在认知策略、元认知策略、社交策略的使用上存在显着差异，在记忆策略、补偿策略和情感策略的使用上无显着差异。

5.2 关于非目的语环境下汉语学习策略与汉语成绩的关系

六种汉语学习策略中有五种学习策略与汉语成绩呈显着正相关，它们分别是认知策略、社交策略、元认知策略和记忆策略、补偿策略。只有一种学习策略，即情感策略与汉语成绩不相关。

6. 讨论与启示

6.1 非目的语环境下的汉语教学应该加强对学生的汉语学习策略指导。

从本研究的结论来看，非目的语环境下汉语学习策略对汉语成绩具有很大的影响，因此汉语教学中一定要对非目的语环境下的学生加强汉语学习策略的指导。在听说读写译训练中，一方面要运用”以‘学’为本”的对外汉语教学法（注释 3），加强知识的传授和技能的训练；另一方面也要注重学习策略的指导，使学生运用汉语学习策略，学会汉字、词语、语法等知识。在学习能力训练中，注重提高听说读写译能力。

学习策略的研究将最终为寻求和建立对外汉语教学的最佳教学模式提供依据（注释 4）。汉语教师应系统地了解和掌握汉语学习策略，以便有效地对学生进行汉语学习策略指导，从而为创立非目的语环境下的汉语教学模式提供实践基础。

6.2 在对学生进行学习策略的指导中，要重点加强认知策略、社交策略和元认知策略等三项策略的指导。

调查结果显示，高分组和低分组在认知策略、社交策略和元认知策略的使用上存在显着差异，而且此三种学习策略与汉语成绩也显着相关。也就是说，如果非目的语环境下的学生在汉

语学习过程中能够较多使用认知策略、社交策略和元认知策略的话，那么这些策略的使用将有助于提高他们的汉语成绩，使汉语学习收到更好的学习效果。因此，在对学生进行汉语学习策略指导中，应重点在认知策略、社交策略和元认知策略方面加强指导。

6.3 在帮辅低分学生的汉语学习中，要重视汉语学习策略的指导。

在汉语教学中，有的教师对低分学生的汉语辅导往往只关注知识、语法等方面的指导，这只是授学生以鱼，而不是授学生以渔。可是本项调查结果显示，低分组学生汉语学习策略水平明显低于高分组学生，这就替是汉语教师对于低分学生的帮辅一定不要忽视对学生的汉语学习策略的指导，应在他们掌握汉语知识的同时还要掌握学习策略，从他们的汉语知识缺欠中，发现他们汉语学习策略的缺陷。在知识补差的同时，坚持加强学习方法策略的指导。

6.4 研究汉语学习规律，把教学生学会学汉语作为汉语教学的重要目标之一。

本项研究结果说明汉语学习策略对于汉语成绩影响很大，在学习汉语知识的过程中应该让学生学会如何学好汉语，这也应该作为汉语教学的重要目标之一。应该把这一目标贯穿于汉语教学和学生汉语学习的全过程之中，使学生通过汉语的学习，既学会了汉语知识、提高了听说读写译的能力，又学会了学汉语的技能，为日后的自我学习、自我发展开辟道路、奠定基础。

6.5 通过训练促进汉语学习策略向汉语学习习惯和技能方向转化。

汉语学习策略只有达到自动化的状态下才能自由运用，在汉语学习中持续发挥作用，提高学习效率和效益。因此，在指导学生汉语学习策略中应不断进行强化训练，不能仅停留在方法策略水平上，应该使学生的汉语学习策略逐渐达到习惯化的程度，实现由学习方法策略向学习习惯技能的转化，真正提高汉语学习能力。只有在学习汉语知识的过程中，把汉语学习策略培养成为学习技能，才能为学生日后的终身汉语学习提供有利的帮助。

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注释：

注释 1. 孙德金 2009:265；孙永红 2012:198.

注释 2. 关于目的语环境下和非目的语环境下汉语学习策略研究的详细情况，参见吴勇毅 2007：214-263；Sun Yonghong 2011c：20-43.

注释 3. 孙永红 2009：53-54.

注释 4. 吴勇毅 2001：73.

分层教学在对外汉语课堂上的运用

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摘 要：对外汉语教学对象是差异性很大的教学群体。即使在同一个班上，学生的汉语水平、学习能力等也会出现参差不齐的现象。这给对外汉语教学带来了挑战。为了解决海外学生在汉语学习过程中出现的个体差异问题，本文探索分层次教学在对外汉语课堂教学中的运用，提倡教师在制定教学计划及实施教学任务的各个环节都应当具备“分层”意识，结合西方学生学习方式，采取针对性的教学方法因材施教，来调动不同水平学生的学习积极性和互动性。笔者根据自己在英国大学课堂上的汉语教学实践和体会，总结出灵活分组、任务分工和分层评价等教学策略，并结合西方语言学界流行的任务型教学法，例举了针对多层次班级的教学实例，希望对海外汉语教学提供一些有益的启示。

关键词：学生个体差异 分层教学

1. 引言

在对外汉语教学中，我们经常遇到这样的现象：即使在同一个课堂上，学生的中文水平也参差不齐。比如在初级班上，有的学生是零起点，而有的已经在上中学的时候学过中文或者去过中国，对中国语言和文化有一定的了解。这给教师备课和组织课堂教学带来很大的挑战。针对同一个班级学生中文水平参差不齐的现象，笔者建议突破传统的单层次教学模式，推行分层次的对外汉语教学方法。在教学材料的选择上，因为采用固定的中文课本，要选择不一样的教材看来比较难，但是教师可以通过一些教学策略，兼顾不同水平学生的学习要求，达到“因材施教”。这些方法包括：帮助学生设定合适的学习目标，灵活分组，任务分工，采用合适的提问方式和分层评价等。本文尝试通过教学实例说明分层教学在语音、汉字、语法和阅读教学中的适用性。

2. 分层教学策略

2.1 分析学生个体差异，帮助学生设定合适的学习目标

了解学生的个体差异是实施差异教学的关键。在学期开始时，教师通过和学生一对一沟通，分析每位学生在中文学习上存在的问题，帮助学生设定合适的学习目标。学习目标定得适当，会增强学生的自信心与成就感。比如有些学生汉字掌握不好，那么这位学生在这学期给自己设定的目标可能是加强对汉字的认知和记忆；有些学生语音、语调掌握不好，那么这学期可以加强语音、语调的练习。让学生自己设定学习目标的好处是可以充分调动学生的学习积极性，提高他们自主学习的能力。学期结束时，老师和这些学生再共同反思这些目标有没有实现。通过效果评价，学生可以清楚地了解自己汉语学习上的强项和弱项，教师也可以了解自己的教学目标定得是否合理，教学方法是否得当，从而完善教学策略。

2.2 灵活分组、小组合作

心理学家维高斯基 Vygotsky (1978) 强调社会互动在认知发展中的重要作用。他认为当学习者处于社会环境中，在与同行的沟通和合作中会激发自身的内在发展潜力。维高斯基的认知理论被广泛运用到教学中，对对外汉语教学很有启发。学生在与其他学生之间的互动合作中互相讨论、交流意见、彼此指导，会极大地帮助他们的汉语学习，有助于缩小学生之间的中文水平差异。

关于如何将水平不同的学生分组，教学界有不用看法。传统的分层次教学主张将水平高的学生分成一组，水平低的学生分成另外一组（Slavin, 1987; Mulkey et al, 2005）。教师根据学生水平，每组安排不同的任务，比如给水平高的小组安排更有挑战性的任务，扩展学生对已掌握的知识的运用能力，而给水平相对低的小组安排相对简单的任务，强化他们对知识掌握的熟悉程度。但是这样的分组方法有一个弊端，容易让学习中文有困难的学生在心里上产生自卑感，挫伤他们的学习热情。因此更多的学者 (Lyle,1999; Pica and Doughty, 1985) 建议将水平不同的学生安排在一组，通过小组成员间的互助合作来促进学生之间的相互学习。笔者从日常教学和学生的反馈中了解到，在小组合作时，学习有困难的学生遇到不懂的地方，中文好的学生会解释给他们。通过解释，中文好的学生进一步巩固了自己的知识，而学习有困难的学生又能从另外的角度加深对语言点的理解。另外，学生的解释有时候比老师的解释更加清楚，更加符合他们的母语习惯。不同的分组方式侧重点不同，笔者在教学中发现灵活分组不但创造了更多机会

让学生在互动中使用汉语，而且有助于兼顾不同水平学生的学习能力，激发他们学习中文的潜在能力。

不少学生对“得”的用法含混不清。为帮助同学们掌握它的用法，笔者进行了如下尝试，取得了较好的效果。这节课的学习重点是掌握“得”的用法，学习用“得”来描述动作的情况，比如“他说中文说得很流利”。笔者采用任务型教学法中意识提升活动类型 (Consciousness –raising tasks)（Ellis, 2003），通过任务活动，有意识地将学生的注意力引导到目的语的语法特征上。 笔者先给学生三组中文例句和英文翻译。每组例句都用“得”来描述动作的情况，但这些句子又存在差异。学生在活动中先一边读句子一边思考三个问题：1）找出这些例句的相似点和不同处；2）找出句子中‘得’的位置；3）归纳语法规则。在独立思考后，笔者将学生分成小组进行讨论，然后每个小组向全班汇报答案，最后教师点评，详细解释语法规则。

教学方案一 ‘找规则’ 适合语法教学

Instruction

1. Work in small groups and study these sentences

1）我姐姐 开得快	2）他 说得很好	3）他 烧得好吃
= 我姐姐 车开得快	他 中文说得很好	他 饭烧得好吃
= 我姐姐开车开得快	他说中文说得很好	他烧饭烧得好吃

2. Question: Can you find any differences among the sentences above?

   What is the location of ‘得’ in these sentences？

   Can you work out the speech patterns for the above sentences?

3. Choose the right answer:

   1) 王京唱歌 __ 得不错。 a 唱 b 很 c 唱歌

   2) 我们的老师英语和法语都说 __ 很流利。 a 的 b 得 c 是

针对学生中文水平参差不齐的现象，笔者在活动中将水平不同的学生分在同一个小组，鼓励学生间的互助合作。笔者发现学生在小组活动中互相讨论答案、彼此指导，课堂气氛活跃。学生很快就掌握了“得”的用法，起到事半功倍的效果。另外，通过有意识地将学生的注意力引导到目的语的语法特征上，有助于调动学生在语法学习上的积极性，培养他们独立思考、解决问题的能力，促进第二语言的习得（Ellis, 2003）。

无论采用何种分组方式（将水平相同的学生分在一组，还是水平不同的学生分在一组），教师的引导作用是不可忽视的。笔者在教学中发现，要真正将合作学习行之有效地开展并不容易。如果处理不当会存在诸多问题，比如学生之间缺乏交流，出现‘冷场’的局面。因此，教师要细心观察小组的活动情况，以引导者的身份给学生提供及时的帮助，使小组合作顺利进行。学生之间的友好交流，轻松愉悦的活动氛围会极大促进小组合作的开展。

2.3 任务设计与分工

2.3.1 任务设计要调动全体学生的参与

要调动全班学生学习中文的主动性和积极性绝非易事。教师在课堂上经常遇到这样的现象：中文好的学生往往担任代表发言，而学习困难或性格内向的学生在课堂上容易变成被动角色，失去锻炼的机会。即使在合作学习时，也会出现个别学生无所事事，或做与活动无关的事情。因此，在设计任务时，教师应该充分兼顾到每一个学生的学习能力和需求。这样，无论是中文好还是学习有困难的学生都有责任完成任务，有所挑战。

以《新实用汉语课本》第三册第 29 课为例。这节课的教学重点是教授学生用 ‘verb+ 着 / 有 / 在 / 是 ’ 来表达空间上的存在，比如 ‘墙上挂着一幅中国字画 / 花园里种着很多花 / 书桌上有一台电脑 /’。为了吸引全班学生参与活动，笔者设计了接龙游戏。首先确定一个地点，比如房间、公园、学校等。 这个地点可以由教师指定或由学生选择。第一个学生用 ‘verb+ 着 / 有 / 在 ’ 造句，比如‘我的房间里有一张书桌’；第二个学生先重复第一个学生造得句子，再以‘书桌’为主题造句，比如‘我的房间里有一张书桌，书桌上摆着一台电脑’；接着第三个学生重复前两位学生造得句子，再以‘电脑’为主题造句，比如‘我的房间里有一张书桌，书桌上摆着一台电脑，电脑的旁边是一张书架’；这样，以此类推。

教学方案二　接龙游戏　适合综合课教学

Instruction

Think of a place and identify one thing that you can see, e.g., ‘我的房间里有一张书桌 ’.

The first person starts the sentence. The next person has to repeat what the first person has said and add in something else, e.g. ‘我的房间里有一张书桌，书桌上摆着一台电脑’ .

Pass the line on, with each student adding something else they can see or imagine

为了完成任务，学生首先要听清前一个学生说得内容，这样练习了听力；同时在造句过程中也锻炼了口语。有些学生对用 ‘verb+ 着 / 有 / 在 / 是 ’ 描述空间的存在掌握得不好，那么接龙游戏给他们创造了互相学习的机会，有助于加深学生对语法点的掌握。这项接龙游戏要求每一位学生的参与，可以在全班开展也可以分小组进行。如果分组进行的话，哪个小组造得句子最多，哪个小组获胜。在内容上，除了描述空间，还可以根据学生水平以及课文内容做更改，比如描述一个故事，介绍自己或家庭成员等。

活动后，教师还可以要求学生写一篇作文，介绍自己的房间、花园等。中文写作是对外汉语教学的难点之一，很多海外学生不知道写些什么和怎么写，那么这样的活动可以为写作练习

做铺垫，让难度降低。

2.3.2 根据学生中文水平安排难度适宜的任务

根据学生中文水平安排不同的学习任务也是一种有效的措施。班上的学生未必要在同一时间做同样的活动，可以有不同的选择。在中文阅读课上，虽然大家使用同样的阅读材料，但是教师可以安排两组任务，第一组任务是是所有学生都必须完成的，比如根据课文内容回答问题。第二组任务有些难度，不做硬性规定，比如用中文复述课文。很明显用中文复述课文就要比只是简单回答问题难得多。学生根据自己的能力试着完成。这样，让不同层次的学生都能”各取所需”地学习。

下面的教学方案三‘找句子’是笔者在阅读课上经常使用的，学生喜欢，效果不错。活动要求每位学生根据选项从文章中选出合适的句子和其他同学分享。第一组选项是所有学生必须完成的，比如找出你喜欢的一个句子 / 难理解的一个句子。第二组选项有些难度，学生根据能力试着完成。比如文章中有些句子表达的观点学生可能不赞同，那么请他们把这样的句子找出来。

教学方案三 ‘找句子’ 适合阅读课教学

Instruction: Read the text and find suitable sentences

(Group A: Compulsory)

a. a beautiful sentence

b. a very interesting sentence

c. a sentence you don’t understand

d. a sentence that contains the main idea

(Group B: Optional)

e. a sentence you agree or disagree with

f. a sentence that reminds you of something

这些选项可以结合文章具体内容来选择。活动中要求学生先独立阅读文章，带着问题，边读边思考，选好句子后以小组讨论的方式交流他们的答案，最后教师讲授课文中的难点和重点。教师通过提供难度不同的题目，兼顾了不同水平的学生，让每一位同学都有所挑战，可以”跳一跳都可以摘到桃子”。

2.4 采用合适的提问方式

提问是语言课上教师经常采用的教学方式。提问可以出现在任何一个教学环节，从新内容

的导入、演示到知识点的练习。合适的课堂提问能引起学生的注意力、兴趣与好奇心，激活学生现有的认知结构和知识体系，引导和鼓励他们积极参与学习过程，创造活跃的课堂气氛。比如在教汉字时，教师给学生几组形似而意不同的字：‘我’和‘找’，‘买’和‘卖’等，问学生这些汉字的相似点和不同点在哪里，帮助他们掌握汉字的书写。不少学者（刘晓雨，2000；陈流芳，2010；荣继华，2009）提出对外汉语课堂上的提问策略，建议教师要重视问题的设计和提问的技巧；既要兼顾学生的语言水平和语言能力，也要鼓励学生积极参与互动。笔者结合以往的研究和多层次班级的教学实际，建议教师在提问方式上采取以下的策略：

策略一　提问后给学生适当思考的时间

英国学生上课很活跃，普遍能配合老师的提问。但是在学生水平参差不齐的班上，会经常出现老师刚提出问题，中文好的学生马上抢答的局面。这样的一个弊端是造成学习中文有困难的学生连独立思考的时间都没有，问题就被回答了。为避免这种现象发生，教师可以在提出问题前告诉学生必须思考一些时间后才可举手回答。这样的好处是一方面提供给水平高的学生认真思考的机会，另一方面给水平低的学生独立思考的时间，鼓励他们试着找到答案。独立思考后，如果水平低的学生还没有找到正确的答案，可以让水平高的学生先回答，然后再让水平低的学生重复一遍，确保每一位同学都能理解。也可以由老师指定学生回答问题，以避免水平高的学生抢说的局面。

策略二　根据教学内容和学生水平，提出难度不同的问题

根据教学内容和学生水平，提出难度不同的问题，让每个学生都有问题可答。例如，学习有困难的学生由于词汇量和掌握的句型有限，可以多回答一些简短而直接的问题，或带有判断性的问题；而水平高的学生就多回答一些拓展延伸性的问题。

比如：问：你是英国人吗？

问：你昨天去哪里了？

教师在提出以上问题时已经将要使用的句子结构提示给学生。这种一问一答的提问方式内容和形式比较单一，属于简单的操练，难度不大。

有些问题，不仅要求学生对生词和句型进行练习，更要求学生进行某种思维操作，对学习内容进行评论、推理、归纳等。比如：

问：你认为大学生应该打工吗？为什么？

问：你觉得‘合适’和‘适合’有什么不同？

这种提问需要学生用中文表达观点或将所学的知识进行整理、归纳，难度更大。笔者建议根据学生水平提出难度不同的问题，但这并不意味着水平低的学生只能回答简单的问题。这可能会导致他们在心理上产生自卑心理。对中文学习有困难的学生，教师的提问方式应该循序渐进、由简单逐渐过渡到复杂；对难度大的问题，应该给学生适当的引导。比如如果突然提问

‘你认为大学生应该打工吗？为什么’，可能会出现学习有困难的学生听不懂问题或是不知道如何回答的尴尬局面。为避免这些情况发生，教师可以将问题分解：

问：你下课后打工吗？

你喜欢这份工作吗？为什么？

你喜欢周末打工，还是周一到周五打工？

通过引导式的提问帮助学生从小问题组织答案再鼓励他们成段表达自己的观点。小问题的回答将难度降低，而小问题的完成会大大提高他们的自信心，鼓励他们接受更大的挑战。总之，教师根据学生的水平采用合适的提问方式，既要提高学生学习中文的积极性和自信心，又要让他们觉得有所挑战。

2.5 偏误纠正、分层评价

老师的评价不仅要帮助学生发现问题，纠正错误，更重要的是促进学生在原有基础上的发展，提高学生的学习自信心。教师也许有这样的疑问：是不是学生的每一个错误都要纠正呢？是不是永远要统一标准，用“一把尺子”衡量所有学生呢？

2.5.1 将统一标准和分层评价相结合

现行的学业成绩评价，强调用统一的标准，用“一把尺子”衡量所有学生，认为只有标准统一，才能体现公正、公平。笔者建议在体现公平公正时应该考虑学生原有基础、学习态度和进步情况，在以课程标准为依据的前提下，将统一标准和分层评价相结合。分层评价首先要看学生的原有基础。比如，对水平高的学生的要求会更加严厉，在肯定成绩的同时，要多指出其存在的问题，提出更高的要求；但对水平低自信心弱的学生，在纠正错误的时候，千万不要挫伤他们学习积极性，要及时给予鼓励、肯定，同时更要鼓励他们多说多练，提高他们学习中文的自信心和乐趣。分层评价还要结合学生的学习态度，如果学生学习努力，虽然成绩暂时不够理想也要鼓励。另外要兼顾学生的进步情况，只要学生学习中文有进步、有提高，就应得到表扬和肯定。

2.5.2 语音、语调

多数外国学生在汉语的语音、语调上掌握不好，那么汉语教师是不是每一个语音、语调上的错误都要纠正呢？因为英语中没有卷舌音 zh、ch、sh，翘舌音 zh 、ch 、sh 和平舌音 z 、c 、s 的区分，使不少学生感到困难。笔者建议未必要用高标准去要求所有学生，把有限的语音教学时间都用在纠正个别声母或韵母发音不够准确上，使得他们望而生畏。中文好的学生要严格要求，但有些学生本来就害羞，害怕说汉语，如果教师再不停纠正错误，可能会挫伤他们的自信心。笔者建议对于学习汉语困难大的学生，教师应该多给他们一些鼓励，抓住重点，暂时放

弃次要的部分，使学生不至于产生畏难情绪，能把汉语学下去。

2.5.3 书写汉字

再以书写汉字为例。正确书写汉字是学习汉语的难点之一，特别是对非汉字圈的学习者来说。过去我们要求音、义、形必须同时掌握；现在一些专家提出汉字的学习不受字形的限制，读与写可以不完全同步。那么如果学生作文里出现拼音该怎么给分呢？学生是不是可以用电脑拼音输入汉字，打印作文呢？笔者在日常教学中是这样操作的：鼓励学生手写作文，如果学生手写汉字，起点分是 100 分；如果电脑输入，起点分是 80 分。作文的评分分为内容、语言和文字书写三块。如果文章中部分汉字用拼音代替，那么书写这块会扣分，但是另外两个评分标准语言和内容不受影响。这样，基础好的学生想要得高分，必须音、义、形同时掌握；基础不好的学生读和写可能不能完全同步，那么教师依然要鼓励他们用汉语表达观点，即使在文章中出现个别拼音，只要表达意思正确，仍然得一些分数。

3. 利用多媒体教学软件开展分层教学

现在，针对不同学生群体的多媒体教学软件被越来越广泛地运用于对外汉语教学中。教师可以充分利用多媒体软件的不同功能键来设计课堂教学活动，做到因材施教，满足不同层次学生的学习需求。以《新实用汉语课本》的例，目前英国不少高校的中文专业使用这个教材。2011 年 2 月北京语言大学出版社发行了配套的多媒体教学课件。 多媒体课件分成课文、练习、语法知识、动画和文化知识等多个模块。在播放课文时，老师点击菜单键，选择汉字加拼音，也可以选择只汉字无拼音。这样通过选择不同模式，教师可以兼顾不同学生的学习水平，将学习难度分层，从而使课堂教学更有针对性，提高课堂教学质量和效率。

4. 结语

综上所述，针对学习水平参差不齐的班级，在教学中我们建议教师在制定教学计划及实施教学任务的各个环节，都应当具备“分层”意识，结合西方学生学习方式，采取针对性的教学方法，创造积极向上、互相合作、共同进步的学习氛围。作为一名教师，要及时了解并尊重学生的个体差异，营造一种平等、理解、轻松的中文学习环境，来调动所有学生学习中文的积极性、主动性和创造性。在多层次班级的教学中，如果处理不当，可能会让水平低的学生失去学习的信心，或让水平高的学生‘吃不饱’。如何才能让分层教学发挥最大的效果，是值得我们深思和探讨的。

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Awareness of Language Learning Strategies: A Case Study of Non-degree Chinese Courses in the UK

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Abstract

Language learning strategies (LLS) have been extensively studied in the field of English as a foreign language since the 1970s. As a result, Chinese researchers began focusing on LLS for learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) in the late 1990s. The majority of researchers are interested in the general LLS used by Chinese language learners or the particular strategies employed by learners to acquire listening, speaking, reading and writing skills; in addition, most Chinese LLS research investigates students with various cultural backgrounds and first languages who learn Mandarin in mainland China. This paper will be looking at the awareness of LLS among teachers and learners, as opposed to specific LLS, for non-degree courses in Sheffield, UK. The findings suggest that, in general, neither teachers nor students are consciously aware of LLS, although both the curriculum and language teaching and learning research have stressed the importance of LLS. There is, therefore, a need for both teacher and student training programmes in LLS.

Keywords: Chinese as a foreign language, language learning strategies, non-degree courses.

1. Introduction

1.1 Studies of language learning strategies

In 1975, Rubin summarised seven features of successful foreign language learners in terms of their learning strategies, in order to help learners to acquire target languages. Since then, much research has been conducted into language learning strategies (LLS) in the context of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1998). Although there are different definitions of LLS from the perspectives of educators and researchers, it is agreed that LLS can make the language learning process 'active' and 'self-directed' (Oxford, 1990, p.1). Research interests have tended to shift away from studying strategies that successful learners have employed towards investigating teaching and learning strategies used inside and outside the classroom (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Nunan, 1997). Moreover, the introduction of the teaching of LLS into the syllabus is widely discussed by linguists (Lessard-Clouston, 1997).

As a result of the research into LLS in EFL, Chinese researchers started researching LLS for learning Chinese as a Second or Foreign Language (CSL/CFL) in the late 1990s. There are two major themes in studying LLS for CSL. The first perspective focuses on general LLS used by L2 Chinese learners in listening, speaking, reading and writing (See Yang, 1998; Xu, 1999; Jiang, 2000; Li, 2004; Lin and Lü, 2005); the second viewpoint analyses the specific methods that learners use to acquire one of these four basic skills (see, for example, Zhao and Jiang, 2002; Qian, 2006).

1.2 Motivation for research questions

Most current LLS research into CFL concentrates on teaching Chinese to learners who are from different cultural backgrounds, with different native languages, in mainland China. However, the research does not differentiate between learners of CFL who are taking degree courses and non-degree courses. Categorising learners according to their purposes of learning Chinese (e.g. for a degree) could make research findings more applicable to classroom teaching, as the different purposes may impact on learners' choices of LLS. Few studies have stressed the LLS issues that occur in the context of teaching and learning Chinese outside of China. Therefore, the current paper will focus on students who are learning Chinese in England on non-degree evening courses. This paper will specifically look at teachers' and learners' awareness of LLS, which may be the starting point for further research into learners' use of LLS in non-degree Chinese programmes. It will not investigate particular strategies used by the group of student participants. Consequently, the findings, in relation to teachers' and students' LLS awareness, are expected to provide language policy-makers with concrete evidence for the development of strategy training programmes on non-degree Chinese courses.

1.3 Research question

The present investigation seeks to determine whether or not learners and language teachers are fully aware of 'language learning strategies' when learning and teaching Chinese. In other words: do teachers and students have a conscious awareness of LLS?

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

There were 61 participants in this study, including 56 students and 5 teachers, who were learning and teaching evening Chinese courses at the Sheffield Confucius Institute (SCI). Confucius Institutes are run by the Chinese government overseas to meet 'the demands of foreign Chinese learners' (The Office of Chinese Language Council International, 2012). Basically, a Confucius Institute is a Chinese language and culture teaching centre, which offers various non-degree Chinese programmes across different proficiency levels. Student participants were randomly selected from the evening courses and for the purpose of this research their proficiency levels were determined by the types of courses they attend. At SCI, students are able to change their course after a few sessions if they find that their language competence does not match the course level: the data were collected in the last session of the course, and thus students were by this time placed in the appropriate classes.

Table 1 shows the number of student participants at each level. Students were mainly native English speakers. They took a two-hour session each week, and the course lasted for 12 weeks. Teachers were UK-based native Chinese speakers.

2.2 Materials

2.2.1 The theoretical framework

The present study was based on the framework of Oxford's LLS theory (1990). Oxford not only critically summarised all previous major LLS research, but also conducted a large number of empirical studies. The reliability and validity of her Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) have been tested on many languages, including Chinese. According to Chang, Liu and Lee (2007, p.243), Oxford's model of LLS has been used by more than 8000 L2 learners, and no alternative LLS evaluative tool has been tested on such a large-scale (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995, p4). Oxford defines LLS as:

... specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. (Oxford, 1990, p. 8)

Furthermore, Oxford (1990) divided LLS into two categories: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies (memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies) are those actions that can directly facilitate language learning, while indirect strategies (metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies) help learners improve their proficiency in an implicit way, such as by helping learners to motivate and organise themselves.

2.2.2 Instrument: Language Learning Strategy Awareness Questionnaire (LLSAQ)

The Language Learning Strategy Awareness Questionnaire (LLSAQ), an instrument developed by the author, was used to examine learners' awareness of LLS. It consisted of four questions in two parts; there were three questions in Part A and one question in Part B. It is worth noting that this questionnaire was designed to test whether or not learners had a clear awareness of LLS and, therefore, students' LLS themselves were not the focus of the questionnaire. The students' and teachers' versions of LLSAQ were essentially identical, except that in the teachers' version, questions were asked about what they thought of their students' use of LLS.

Specifically, Part A aimed to check the awareness of LLS in an explicit manner through three categories of questions. In the first category, the question was asked to determine whether or not the participants had heard of LLS. In the second category, six technical terms related to Oxford's direct and indirect strategies were listed and students were required to select ones that they were aware of in relation to learning Chinese. If participants had received LLS training, they might be familiar with these terms. In the third category, instead of selecting items directly from SILL, several items chosen from Oxford's LLS system such as 'creating mental linkages' and 'analysing and reasoning' (Oxford, 1990, p17) were mixed with some non-strategy items and participants were asked to pick out the items that they thought could be language strategies. Distracters are particular items that do not match the description of the LLS definition given above. For instance, 'respecting different cultures' is not a 'specific action' but rather an attitude or moral value and, therefore, it should not be included in LLS. In contrast, 'learn the target culture' can be considered as a LLS strategy.

Based on a specific language learning context, Part B asked students to tick the items that could improve the learner's communicative competence, which was described as the aim of L2 learning by Oxford (1990). As before, the listed items were a mixture with both 'real' LLS strategies chosen from SILL and a few 'fake' alternatives. It aimed to examine the LLS awareness of learners in an implicit way. Moreover, the term 'language learning strategies' was not indicated in this part. In the questionnaire, the number of distracters was in line with the number of potential answers.

2.3 Procedure

All the teachers and students were asked to fill in the LLSAQ at the end of their last session of the 12-week course in the classroom. The questionnaires were distributed to the students by their teachers. All participants were required to finish the questionnaire without discussing it with others. It took approximately ten minutes to complete the LLSAQ. The teachers collected the questionnaires when they had been completed. The author collected all the questionnaires, including the teacher versions of the LLSAQ, from the teachers afterwards.

Three teacher participants were invited to a separate 30-minute semi-structured interview once the results of the questionnaires had been obtained. As the participants were not willing for the interviews to be audio recorded, only note-taking was used to record the interviews. In the interviews, participants were asked to describe their understanding of LLS and then to explain their decision-making process when filling in the LLSAQ. For the sake of the reliability of the field notes and valid interpretation, teacher participants were asked to provide feedback on the notes at the end of each interview, also known as 'member checks' (Schwartz-Shea, 2006, p.104). After this, corrections were made to the notes based on the feedback. Moreover, in order to avoid the invasion of participants' privacy, all the participants were informed that the participation of this study was anonymous and voluntary, and both teachers and students were not asked to indicate their names during the whole procedure of data collection (Bryman, 2004, p.513).

2.4 Data analysis

The data collected from students and teachers were treated separately. For each question, a relative frequency for each item, including distracters, was calculated and then ranked in decreasing order. If participants had a conscious awareness of LLS, the frequencies of distracters should be clearly distinguished from the potential correct answers in the frequency tables. In contrast, if the frequencies of distracters and correct answers did not show a significant difference, this would indicate that the participants did not have a clear awareness of language strategies. Since no correlation needed to be tested in the current study, no other statistical tests were used. In terms of the interview data, themes and patterns emerging from each interview were compared with one other (McDonough and McDonough, 1997, pp.186-187).

3. Results and discussion

Tables 1S, 2S, 3S and 4S illustrate the results of the four sections of the students' LLSAQ, respectively. The responses to the first question, which attempts to capture an overall picture of the awareness of students of LLS, show that only 14% of student participants had heard of the term 'LLS'.

The responses to the second question, which tests whether students have awareness of their own LLS, show that students think they employ memory strategies (59%), social strategies (52%) and cognitive strategies (32%) much more frequently than affective strategies (7%), compensation strategies (7%) and metacognitive strategies (4%). However, Table 3S demonstrates that students tend to believe that compensation strategies are more likely to be considered as LLS than social strategies. Therefore, this contradiction shows that students may not consciously notice what LLS they are currently using.

The responses to the third question, shown in Table 3S, indicate that the 'real' LLS are not often regarded as 'strategies' by students while the distracters, in contrast, are thought to be strategies. In other words, students are unable to distinguish LLS from general statements that could be beneficial to language learning but are not necessarily LLS.

The question in Part B can be interpreted as 'what specific actions taken by Mr. A enable him to learn Chinese easier, faster and more enjoyably, in ways that are more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations?'. This is actually the definition of LLS by Oxford (1990). In short, the question is to ask students to differentiate LLS from distracters. As a result, statements such as 'I am interested in traditional Chinese characters', 'I enjoy reading novels' and 'I think learning

Chinese is good for my future career' are not supposed to be LLS because they are not 'specific actions' but rather learners' personal preferences. In terms of the option regarding 'visiting China for pleasure', this happens randomly and cannot help learners to improve their language competence in an efficient and lasting manner. Similarly, going to Chinese restaurants and shopping in Chinese supermarkets in an English-speaking environment are mainly for the purpose of entertainment rather than acquiring a foreign language. However, such activities do have a positive impact on learning Chinese to some extent. We will discuss this point of view in the description of the teachers' interviews.

The teachers' awareness of LLS is shown in Tables 1T, 2T, 3T and 4T. As indicated in Table 2T, teachers' perceptions of compensation strategies and metacognitive strategies are similar to those of the students. Moreover, the participants fail to distinguish LLS from the 'fake' alternatives in Question 3 and 4.

Three teachers were interviewed following the questionnaire. From the discussion, the following themes can be summarised. Firstly, little LLS training has been included in their teacher training programmes; most of the training courses are confined to language teaching methodology and classroom management. Secondly, teachers always focus on their language 'teaching' strategies as opposed to the learners' language 'learning' strategies, and believe that all the activities that would be advantageous to learners can be regarded as LLS. For instance, 'keeping up with worldwide news' is considered a language learning strategy by 60% of teachers. As mentioned above, the students' thoughts are on a par with those of the teachers in this regard. That is why, for example, the majority of students chose 'enjoying language learning' (80%) as a language learning strategy. Thirdly, teachers tend to think that achieving teaching aims and objectives through teachers' teaching strategies is more important than teaching learners what LLS actually are. However, according to the general objectives of international Chinese language education, described in the International Curriculum for Chinese Language Education (The Office of Chinese Language Council, 2008, pp. II-III), strategies such as 'affective, learning (both cognitive and metacognitive strategies), communicative, resource, and interdisciplinary strategies' are all components of learners' language competencies along with 'linguistic knowledge, linguistic skills and 'cultural awareness'. Consequently, LLS should be introduced to classrooms in order to achieve the curriculum objectives.

4. Conclusions

The aim of this investigation was to assess the awareness of teachers and students of language learning strategies in non-degree Chinese programmes. The findings suggest that in general both teachers and students are not consciously aware of LLS, although both the curriculum and language teaching and learning research have stressed the importance of LLS. There is, therefore, a definite need for both teacher and student training programmes in LLS. However, a number of important limitations need to be considered. First, the sample size is small, especially in terms of teacher participants. Second, the reliability and validity of the LLSAQ need to be fully assessed. Future research should, therefore, further explore the awareness of LLS among adult learners and their language instructors from other Confucius Institutes in the UK. Finally, an overview of LLS awareness in non-degree courses is expected to be gained.

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Courses	**Beginners I**	**Beginners II**	**Upper Beginners**	**Intermediate**	**Upper intermediate**	**Advanced**
Total number	28	15	6	3	2	2
English as L1	24	11	4	3	2	2

Table 1: Information about student participants

Part A-1: 'Have you heard of the term 'Language Learning Strategies' **(LLS)? '**

%	total	BI	BII	UB	Int	UInt	AD
	14	11	7	67	0	0	0

Notes

BI	Beginners I	BII	Beginners II	UB	Upper Beginners
Int	Intermediate	UInt	Upper Intermediate	AD	Advanced

Table 1S: Students' awareness of LLS-1

Part A-2: 'Which of the following learning strategy/ies do you think you are aware of in learning Mandarin? (Tick all that apply)'

Memory strategies	59 (%)
Social strategies	52
Cognitive strategies	32
None	23
Affective strategies	7
Compensation strategies	7
Metacognitive strategies	4

Table 2S: Students' awareness of LLS-2

Part A-3: 'Please tick the items that you think could be language learning strategies. (Tick all that apply)'

Practising	Cognitive strategy	86(%)
Enjoying language learning	***Distracter***	80
Creating mental linkages	Memory strategy	79
Having full attendance	***Distracter***	50
Developing an interest in East Asia	***Distracter***	45
Guessing intelligently	Compensation strategy	38
Respecting different cultures	***Distracter***	38
Empathising with others	Social strategy	32
Keeping up with worldwide news	***Distracter***	32
Lowering your anxiety	Affective strategy	25
Centring your learning	Metacognitive strategy	20
Following famous Chinese actors	***Distracter***	7

Table 3S: Students' awareness of LLS-3

Part B. 'Context: Mr A is currently taking a part-time Mandarin course in England. The following statements are made by him. Please tick the items that you think are going to help him improve his communicative competence in Mandarin.'

'I review Chinese lessons often.'	Memory strategy	89(%)
'I try to learn about Chinese culture.'	Social strategy	77
'I read for pleasure in Chinese.'	Cognitive strategy	75
'I visit China for pleasure occasionally.'	***Distracter***	63
'I am interested in traditional Chinese characters.'	***Distracter***	54
'I think about my progress in learning Chinese.'	Metacognitive strategy	52
'I do shopping in a Chinese supermarket.'	***Distracter***	50

'I go to a Chinese restaurant at least once a week.'	***Distracter***	43
'I think learning Chinese is good for my future career.'	***Distracter***	43
'I read Chinese without looking up every new word.'	Compensation strategy	39
'I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning Chinese.'	Affective strategy	32
'I enjoy reading novels.'	***Distracter***	11

Table 4S: Students' awareness of LLS-4

1: 'Have you heard of the term 'Language Learning Strategies' (LLS)? '

%	total	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
	100	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Notes T1 Teacher 1; Y Yes

Table 1T: Teachers' awareness of LLS-1

Part A-2: 'Out of these learning strategies which do you think your students employ? (Tick all that apply)'

Memory strategies	100 (%)
Social strategies	80
Cognitive strategies	80
Affective strategies	60
Compensation strategies	0
Metacognitive strategies	0
None	0

Table 2T: Teachers' awareness of LLS-2

Part A-3: 'Please tick the items that you think could be language learning strategies. (Tick all that apply)'

Practising	Cognitive strategy	100 (%)
Enjoying language learning	***Distracter***	100
Creating mental linkages	Memory strategy	100
Guessing intelligently	Compensation strategy	100
Respecting different cultures	***Distracter***	80
Having full attendance	***Distracter***	80
Lowering your anxiety	Affective strategy	80
Centring your learning	Metacognitive strategy	80
Developing an interest in East Asia	***Distracter***	60
Empathising with others	Social strategy	60
Keeping up with worldwide news	***Distracter***	60
Following famous Chinese actors	***Distracter***	20

Table 3T: Teachers' awareness of LLS-3

Part B. 'Context: Mr A is currently taking a part-time Mandarin course in England. The following statements are made by him. Please tick the items that you think are going to help him improve his communicative competence in Mandarin.'

'I review Chinese lessons often.'	Memory strategy	100 (%)
'I visit China for pleasure occasionally.'	***Distracter***	100
'I read for pleasure in Chinese.'	Cognitive strategy	100
'I go to a Chinese restaurant at least once a week.'	***Distracter***	100
'I try to learn about Chinese culture.'	Social strategy	80
'I think learning Chinese is good for my future career.'	***Distracter***	80
'I do shopping in a Chinese supermarket.'	***Distracter***	80
'I read Chinese without looking up every new word.'	Compensation strategy	80
'I am interested in traditional Chinese characters.'	***Distracter***	60
'I think about my progress in learning Chinese.'	Metacognitive strategy	60
'I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning Chinese.'	Affective strategy	60
'I enjoy reading novels.'	***Distracter***	60

Table 4T: Teachers' awareness of LLS-4

|第三部分|

Part 3

汉语作为外语教学的中高级阶段语音修辞教学

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摘　要: 本文将“对外汉语教学”和“汉语国际教育”两种说法合并为“汉语作为外语教学”一种称说。首先分析目前汉语作为外语教学中有关修辞内容教学方面存在的问题，指出长期以来不重视汉语修辞教学的状况应予以改变。然后阐释中高级阶段语音修辞教学的主要内容：如语调、停顿、语速、语气、平仄、节奏等等。最后提出融入式的教学方法。总之，汉语修辞内容应该融入汉语作为外语教学的各种课型、各个层级教学的全过程，应全方位地恰当地贯穿在语音、词汇、语法乃至汉字等教学内容之中。并且其修辞教学内容不应仅限于简单地列入教学大纲，而要有效贯彻到教材编写以及课堂教学过程之中，并应体现在相关的语言水平与语言能力测试之中。其修辞内容的教学，不应只在高级汉语阶段实施，而应该贯穿在初级、中级、高级各个阶段的教学过程之中；不应只针对长期学习汉语的学生，也要针对短期学习汉语的学生。

关键词: 修辞内容教学存在问题　主要教学内容　融入式教学方法

本文将“对外汉语教学”和“汉语国际教育”两种说法可以合并为“汉语作为外语教学”一种称说。

1. 目前汉语作为外语教学在修辞内容教学方面存在的问题

在汉语作为外语教学领域，长期以来存在着不重视汉语修辞教学的弊端。第一表现在相关教学大纲、教材建设、相关语言水平测试以及能力测试等未将修辞内容列入常规内容；第二表现在相关修辞内容也几乎未在实际教学过程中得以实施。第三表现在对教师培养目标和要求以及培养过程或相关培训方面很少或从不涉及修辞内容。下面着重分析第一方面的问题。

1.1《高等学校外国留学生汉语言专业教学大纲》等相关大纲

汉语作为外语教学的相关大纲，如《高等学校外国留学生汉语言专业教学大纲》⑴、《高等学校外国留学生汉语教学大纲——长期进修》⑵、《高等学校外国留学生汉语教学大纲——短期强化》⑶、《汉语水平词汇与汉字等级大纲》⑷、《汉语水平等级标准与语法等级大纲》⑸等等，前者少有或几乎没有关于修辞教学内容以及测试的循序渐进、符合教学规律的明确要求，表明尚未形成将修辞内容纳入常规教学的意识。后四种完全未涉及到任何与词汇和语法密切关联的修辞内容。

以《高等学校外国留学生汉语言专业教学大纲》为例，其中提出在四年级第二学期开设“现代汉语修辞”课程。该大纲关于现代汉语“语言知识”的系列课程基本沿用母语“汉语言文学专业”课程设置顺序，二上开设语音、二下开设汉字、三上下开设词汇，四上开设语法，四下开设修辞等课程。“现代汉语修辞”课程介绍的内容概要是：“教学目的是使学生掌握现代汉语修辞的基础知识，并学会使用一些基本的修辞手段，能够在正确的基础上更好地使用现代汉语。教学内容是系统教授现代汉语修辞的基础知识，包括语境与修辞，修辞与语音、词汇、语法的关系，积极修辞与消极修辞，修辞与篇章、语体等。教学方法是突出实用性原则，在课堂讲授的基础上进行各种汉语修辞方面的练习。”⑹ 我们认为一方面作为“外国留学生汉语言文学专业”的四年级开设的修辞课程，其原则应在于总结、概括、升华，不能仅限于一般性的修辞知识的讲解与练习。宜从语音、文字、词汇、语法等各个角度，对学生从一年级到四年级在各门课程中接触到的各种修辞现象及其技巧进行系统总结概括，再上升到一般性的修辞基础理论。另一方面，汉语修辞内容的教学不能只限于四下的这一门课程，相关的修辞教学内容应该融入各个年级各类课型之中，这一点在大纲中并未得到体现。

1.2《国际汉语教学通用课程大纲》、《国际汉语能力标准》、《国际汉语教师标准》

1.2.1《国际汉语教学通用课程大纲》(7)(下称《通用大纲》)

《通用大纲》分为目标、语言知识、语言技能、策略、文化意识五个部分。在“修辞教学内容”方面进行了一些修正，将其放在“语言知识”的“语篇”部分之中，1-5 级的提法分别是：①初步感知简单的修辞方法。②在教师指导下，感知较简单的修辞方法，如夸张、排比等。③尝试运用简单的中文修辞方法，感知比较复杂的中文修辞方法；根据比较简单的修辞方法的特征和功能，初步学习口语和书面语篇章所表达的思想。④尝试运用简单和比较复杂的中文修辞方法，感知复杂的中文修辞方法；根据比较复杂的修辞方法的特征和功能，理解口语和书面语篇章所表达的思想。⑤掌握简单、比较复杂和复杂的修辞方法，感知更复杂的中文修辞方法；根据汉语普通话修辞方法的特征和功能，基本理解口语和书面语篇章所表达的思想。

《通用大纲》存在问题如下：（1）同一本课程大纲，对修辞的提法不统一：有“中文修辞方法”、“普通话修辞方法”两种提法。从另一个角度看，“普通话”也可以指口语，但是该大纲“根据汉语普通话修辞方法的特征和功能，基本理解口语和书面语篇章所表达的思想”的表述，在“普通话修辞”之下又同时提到了“口语”和“书面语”，说明确实是概念不统一。（2）大纲中关于“修辞方法”的所谓“简单”、“复杂”的提法过于笼统，作为教学大纲，难以用于指导教学过程或语言测试实践。（3）作为“通用”大纲，修辞内容，不应只体现在“语言知识”一个部分，而应综合体现在“语言知识”、“语言技能”以及“策略”之中，其“策略”部分应该增加“修辞策略”内容。（4）事实上，该大纲在修辞方面，还应有更加明确的标准，还应该制定更加详实、更加切实可行的策略和措施，以有效指导教学。（5）最根本的问题是：《通用大纲》至少在目前情况下还处于纸上谈兵阶段。大纲的“目标”并不是制定大纲的终极目的，其目的是要有效指导教材编写、具体教学以及相关测试。目前的实际情况表明，各类各层次的教材并没有将《通用大纲》的相关要求贯穿到教材编写、课堂教学以及相关学习者语言水平与能力评测之中。

1.2.2《国际汉语能力标准》(8)(下称《能力标准》)

《能力标准》分为汉语总体能力描述、汉语口头交际能力、汉语书面交际能力、汉语口头理解能力、汉语口头表达能力、汉语书面理解能力、汉语书面表达能力七个方面，每个方面从低到高依次分为五个等级。完全没有提及“修辞能力”，但跟修辞能力密切相关的汉语交际能力与表达能力的提法如下：（1）汉语口头交际能力方面提出：四级——表达基本清楚，且有一定连贯性。五级——表达清楚连贯，详略得当。（2）汉语书面交际能力方面提出：四级——语句基本通顺，表达基本清楚，且有一定连贯性。五级——语句通顺，语篇连贯。（3）汉语口头

表达能力方面提出：四级——大意是“自信交流”。五级——大意是“信心并有效”交流。(4) 汉语书面表达能力方面提出：四级——语句基本通顺，表达基本清楚。五级——用词恰当，表达通顺。

《能力标准》，没有在《通用大纲》明确提出“修辞知识”的基础上进行延伸拓展，这使其存在着一个致命的缺陷：与“通用大纲”的教学目标及内容严重脱节。试想在“语言知识”等方面制定了掌握或尝试运用“简单”或“复杂”的“中文修辞方法”的相关标准，但是在必须通过知识转化成能力的“能力标准”中却完全不再提及“修辞”能力，造成这种严重脱节的症结还有待进一步研讨。

1.2.3《国际汉语教师标准》(9)（下称《教师标准》）

要有效实施《通用大纲》内容，实施所有的策略，使汉语学习者能力达到特定标准，教师是最关键的。《教师标准》列出五个模块：语言基本知识与技能、文化与交际、第二语言习得与学习策略、教学方法、教师综合素质。这五个模块中都完全没有提及修辞内容。我们认为至少应该在第 1、3、4 模块融进修辞内容。第 1 模块“语言基本知识与技能”内容中应该提及修辞知识。在第 3 模块“第二语言习得与学习策略”应该提及修辞策略。在第 4 模块“教学方法”的语音、文字、词汇、语法、汉字、听力、口语、阅读、写等九个项目中，都应该提及相关修辞内容教学方法，或者将修辞教学方法单列为一个项目。

综上所述，《通用大纲》已经在语言技能中明确地提出修辞教学内容；在综合技能中，间接地涉及到修辞内容。但是在《能力标准》完全未提及修辞能力问题。在《教师标准》中，教师的“知识与技能”等相关方面也都完全没有提及到教师应该具有什么样的修辞意识以及修辞知识及其技能。这表明，(1) 这三本大纲严重脱节，各说各话，各表各花，至少在修辞教学方面三本大纲内部未能形成修辞教学意识明确、脉络清晰、符合教学规律的有机统一。(2) 更需要讨论的是，《教师标准》完全不提及“修辞”的概念，试想如果教师没有相关修辞知识以及修辞技能，没有运用修辞的策略意识，怎么能将相关的修辞内容体现在教学过程之中，学生又怎么能具有“掌握简单、比较复杂和复杂的修辞方法，感知更复杂的中文修辞方法；根据汉语普通话修辞方法的特征和功能，基本理解口语和书面语篇章所表达的思想”的能力。可见，关键的问题是教师要具有必要的汉语修辞意识、修辞知识以及技能，具有一定的引导并指导学生有效运用汉语修辞策略提高表达水平的教学能力，然后体现到课程大纲中，再进一步继续拓展到学习者能力标准中，这样才能在实际教学过程或测试内容中加以贯彻落实。

相关大纲在修辞教学内容方面少有甚至没有明确要求，势必致使教师修辞教学意识淡漠；势必影响各级各类的汉语作为外语教学的教材极少或几乎不明确地涉及汉语修辞内容；势必影响实际的教学过程极少或几乎不涉及汉语修辞内容；势必影响各类各级相关语言水平及语言能力测试极少或几乎不涉及汉语修辞内容。

针对汉语作为外语教学这种长期以来忽视修辞教学的现状，有学者一针见血地指出：“语言

文字的高水平运用，以对语言文字的深刻理解与熟练掌握为基本前提。其中，既包括语音、词汇、语法、文字各系统，也包括修辞系统。因为修辞不仅‘全方位’地影响着语言文字的使用，而且自始至终‘全方位’地影响着学习者对语言文字内容的理解、学习。这种影响，对那些身处汉语学习过程中的外国人尤为突出。……所以，修辞是重要的语文知识与语用内容，也是重要的文化内容，对语文的使用和理解学习都具有深刻影响，学习汉语的外国人有必要系统了解。长期以来不重视汉语修辞教学的状况应予以改变。”⑽总而言之，目前需要达成以下共识：(1）修辞不是一种孤立的语言知识，语用以及文化现象——其教学内容应全方位地贯穿在语音、语义、词汇、语法等内容之中。(2）修辞内容的教学，不是只在专门的修辞课程中实施，而是要贯穿在听力、口语、阅读（教材、报刊阅读)、汉语精读、写作等各种课型之中。(3）修辞内容的教学，不是只在高级汉语阶段实施，而是应该贯穿在初级、中级、高级各个阶段的教学过程之中。(4）修辞内容教学，不只应针对长期学习汉语的学生，也要针对短期学习汉语的学生。(5）修辞教学内容不仅只限于简单地列入教学大纲，而要有效贯彻在师资培养、教材编写以及课堂教学过程之中，并应体现在相关的语言水平与语言能力测试之中。

2. 中高级阶段语音修辞教学主要内容

2.1《通用大纲》与语音修辞教学

《通用大纲》，虽然未明确提出“语音修辞”的概念，但是将相关内容放在“语言技能”之“说”的技能之中，1-5 级的提法分别是：①能跟读、复述、或背诵课堂上所学的词句，声调基本正确。②句调准确。③学会使用重音、停顿、语调或肢体语言等手段来加强语气。在三级的综合技能中提法是：“初步具备借助重音、停顿、语调或肢体语言等手段来体改交际效果的基本能力。”④连贯性。⑤能就一般性话题进行有效沟通和交流。综合技能中提到：“能够把握重点，进行初步概括和分析。”关于该大纲的间接涉及到的语音修辞教学情况，有三个方面需要讨论：(1）相较于以往的教学大纲，其中的明显改进的地方是在“②、③”中明确地提出了“句调”、“学会使用重音、停顿、语调或肢体语言等手段来加强语气”等语音修辞内容，在“①”中明确提出了复述、背诵的基本要求。(2）上述第④、⑤，可以理解为间接地涉及到了语音修辞问题。(3）目前至少存在三方面的问题：作为指导教学的课程大纲，所间接涉及到的“语音修辞”教学内容，目前的实际情况是第一与教材脱节；第二与教学实际脱节；第三与相关语言水平与能力测试脱节。

在实际教学过程中，初级阶段，语音教学必须以语音本体教学为主，以语音修辞教学为辅。在初级阶段，语音教学多以正音正调为主，针对语音阶段声韵调教学难点以及容易出现的偏误，

运用声韵调各种相关教学方法（如模仿法、对比法、引导法、直观教学法、夸张法等等），尽可能使学生语音语调基本正确。

中高级阶段，语音教学应以语音修辞教学为主，语音本体的教学自然地降到辅助的地位，但是要注重将语音本体的正音教学与语音修辞教学有机交融成一体进行。在中高级阶段，语音教学一般多以正“腔调”为主，尽量纠正学生的外国腔调，使其把握自然的汉语腔调，培养出汉语地道的语感。为了达到这个目的，在教学过程中，极有必要融入重轻读、停顿、语速、语气、平仄、语调、节奏等语音修辞教学内容并将其调整到重要位置，这样才能够有效地促进学习者感知感受并把握自然汉语语感的能力，促进其感知感受并把握以致欣赏汉语韵律的能力，最终达到使学习者运用汉语自如顺畅表达的基本目的。

2.2 中高级阶段的语音修辞教学内容

中高级阶段的语音修辞教学内容，主要有四个方面：（1）了解汉语重读、停顿、语速、语气、平仄、语调、节奏等方面的基本常识。（2）感受甚至把握汉语口语表达中布局重读、调谐语调、讲究停顿、运用语速、丰富语气、协调平仄、和谐节奏的相关技能。特别是理解这些有声音但无固定意义的因素（甚至包括沉默、叹息、咳嗽等等），在特定情境下所包含着的重要的感情密码，体验其所能传递出的暗示、制止、号召、鼓动、赞扬、怀疑、讽刺、惊讶、申诉、坚决、自信、祝愿、庄重、悲痛、冷淡、喜悦、热情、自豪、警告等各种情感。（3）恰当引导高级阶段学生了解并感受汉语利用声、韵、调、音节等语音因素进行修辞的相关技巧，如联绵、押韵、顺口、拗口、叠音、拟声、衬字、谐音双关等等。（4）适当指导学生，运用一定的语音修辞策略增加口语和书面语的表达效能。

2.2.1 布局重读

重读，是与轻读相对而言的，有相互的对比才有所谓重读、轻读，它们都是构成表达语调的重要因素。在口语表达或者朗读时，为了恰当地表情达意，为了准确地表现出句子语意的目的，常常需要强调一些词、短语乃至句子，这些被强调的内容在语音表达形式上往往以重读的形式体现出来。有的学者将重读分为语意重读和修辞重读两类。⑾教学中宜多引导学生运用并列、对比、判断、转折、呼应等重读，目的是使句子的语意更加突出，使文章的逻辑关系更加紧密，使情感色彩更加鲜明。如：

马：跟中国人喝酒，我是有亲身体验的。所以说中国的酒文化厉害。// 陆：说这是文化，也算是吧。应该说这种文化里面也的确有些不好的东西。譬如说，有人劝酒太热情，让对方受不了。// 马：我觉得也是。上次跟钱经理一起喝酒，他们一杯又一杯地劝我，我能不喝醉吗？ // 陆：是啊！尽管喝酒是为了高兴，甚至也可以稍稍多喝一点，但不能喝得太多。他劝你喝，你可以不喝或少喝嘛。// 马：那是你在这儿说，真到了酒桌上，你不想喝也得喝，不能喝也得喝，

甚至就算是毒药，你也得把它喝下去。你说，我喝了钱经理的，不喝张经理的，行吗？人家祝你身体健康，祝你全家幸福，祝你万事如意，你能不喝吗？（《劝酒太热情》节选自《新实用5》⑿第 54 课）——例中下加“　”和“　”下划线的都要特别加以重读，其中的“喝”既属于并列性重读，又属于呼应性重读。其他的“　”要与“喝”对比处理成稍微轻一些重读。这里只是举例性简单标注，实际上，可视学生水平的高低再进行更加细腻的处理。对这些词语的重读的恰当处理不仅使其对话的主题更加突出，也能传递出各种丰富的感情色彩。

2.2.2 调谐语调

语调，是指全句的高、低、长、短、抑、扬、顿、挫甚至声音的轻重快慢等。语调就是利用这些因素根据表达内容与表达者内心感情的起伏变化把表达者的思想感情和态度表现在语音上，形成不同的高低起落。只要表达内容和表达者的感情态度有了变化，语调也就自然发生变化。俗话说：锣鼓听声儿，说话听音儿。口头表达中的一些弦外之音往往是通过巧妙地运用语调表现出来的。正因为语调所具有的这种十分重要的表达情感的作用，所以往往被称为情感的晴雨表。可以给学生举举意大利影星罗西高超地利用语调技巧传情达意的例子：有一次罗西出席外宾主持的宴会，席上外国客人请他即席表演一段悲剧。只见他向服务员要了一个本夹，就念了起来。客人们虽然听不懂意大利语，但听到他痛苦的声音和悲伤的语调，看到他凄楚的表情，都禁不住流下了眼泪。只有席间的一位意大利人听出来罗西朗诵的是宴会的菜谱。⒀这说明语调传情达意的作用是多么重要。其教学要点有两个：（1）语调的落点。汉语的语调，主要表现在语句末尾的音节上。语句末尾有语气助词或者轻声音节时，就落在倒数第二或第三的音节上。其类型主要有升调、降调、平调、曲调等四种。升调，多是末字语调上扬。一般在情绪比较激动、惊讶、愤怒、疑惑、等待回答、暂停待续等情况下使用。一般的疑问、号召或者感叹都采用升调表达。降调，末尾的音节短而低，多在情绪稳定，或平淡、沉重，或坚决、肯定等情况下使用。平调，句末音节拖平延长，多表达平静、严肃或者冷淡的感情，也可以在表示不明确的意见，或是沉思时使用。说明、叙述时多使用平调。曲调，不一定是句末音节，可以把需要的任何一个音节加强，拖长，多在情绪激动、表达委婉含蓄、犹豫不决或者更复杂感情的时候使用。要使学习者了解有时候用一种语调表情达意，有时候也可以使各种语调循环往复交错出现，使表达产生抑扬顿挫的美感。（2）在教学过程中，要善于引导学习者将一般性地读课文尽可能发展成一般性地朗读课文，能够根据课文内容的具体需要对语调进行创造性的处理，尽可能使课文读得声情并茂。语调的谐调，要随着课文内容的变化而变化，要有高潮、低潮的升降起伏。高潮时，语调要比较高亢激扬；低潮时，语调要低沉平稳，使语调抑扬高低，错落有致，使课文朗读练习带上比较强烈的感情色彩。如：

a 美国一个叫切尼格乐斯的镇上，发生了一起银行抢劫案。抢劫犯抓住了五岁的小男孩儿乔治牵制作为人质。……//b 小乔治在劫匪的怀里凄厉地大声哭着，这声音几乎撞碎了在场每一个人的心。多事的媒体已经在现场请教心理学专家，询问这次经历对小乔治会有什么样的影

响。专家的论断是：即使他得救，这惊心动魄的一幕也会在他心里留下很大的阴影，对他的成长产生负面影响，并有可能影响其终生。//c 就在劫匪决定杀害小乔治之前，狙击手已经来到了最佳位置。只听"嘭"的一声，几乎就在同时，不同角度的三颗子弹准确地击中了劫匪的头部。如警方预想的一样，他还没来得及做出反应就被击毙了。//d 小乔治从劫匪的胸口滑落下来的一瞬间，鲜血溅满了他的身体。只见血人一样的小乔治被眼前景象吓得目瞪口呆，立在那儿，像傻了一样。离他最近的谈判专家尼尔森迅速跑了过去，把小乔治高高地抱起来。面对着冲进来的人群和急着抢新闻的媒体，尼尔森突然高喊了一句："演习结束！"//e"真的是演戏吗？"噩梦初醒的小乔治半信半疑地盯着尼尔森问。//f"当然，就因为事先没通知，所以你才表现的如此逼真。现在，我宣布，演习圆满结束。"尼尔森小心地安慰着他。……//g 几个领会了尼尔森意思的警察也上前赞扬小乔治，说他表现得非常好。这时，所有的人似乎都明白了这是怎么一回事，都表扬小乔治刚才的表现实在是好极了。//h"真的吗？可我还是吓哭了。"小家伙苍白的脸上终于显出了红润的颜色。 //i 当天，切尼格乐斯当地的媒体集体失声，对银行案只字未提。(《爱的欺骗》节选自《中文天天读 •5B》⒁第 16 课，第 98 页）——a 段介绍故事背景，采用平静的叙述语调，气息舒缓，语速稍慢。b c d 三段宜急促紧迫，但最后一句"演习结束"要采用"兴高采烈"的语气和高亢激昂的语调。e f h 段模仿乔治和尼尔森说话，乔治的语调宜迟疑犹豫；尼尔森说明"真相"的语调要气缓声柔，温和宽松，爱意弥漫。g i 段仍然采用叙述语气，语调宜平静平稳。

2.2.3 讲究停顿

口语表达中之所以停顿，主要是由生理原因和表情达意的需要来决定的。口头交际主要是以口耳为渠道进行面对面交际，要让对方听懂并基本接受交际内容，就必须善于停顿。口语表达中的停顿，是语言有效表达的重要因素之一，没有停顿，就没有节奏；没有节奏，就难以表达各种必要的情感。所以在教学过程中，要善于让学习者了解，不能恰当运用口语表达中的停顿，就会影响交际。如果能够讲究口头表达中的停顿，就可以丰富表达内容，增加语流波澜，使表达富有情趣，富有新意。

口头表达中的停顿，有换气停顿、语法停顿、逻辑停顿、心理停顿等四种。实际上这四种停顿，总是有机地联系在一起的，是语言表达停顿不可分割的统一体。(1）换气停顿，主要是生理方面的需要，主要作用是缓气，减弱呼气和吸气的声音。换气停顿，实际上是与语法停顿、逻辑停顿、心理停顿密切联系在一起的，有时候换气停顿是单独出现的，有时候换气停顿是与其他三种停顿交融在一起的。正确地运用换气，既能使气息顺畅，又有助于发挥其他三种停顿的作用。(2）语法方面的停顿主要是为了区分语言单位。正确地运用了语法停顿，就能使由各种语言单位充当的各种句子成分的关系正确、清晰，否则有可能使表达模糊，错误。(3）逻辑的停顿基本是出于强调、呼应、转换等方面的需要，目的是使表达更加准确。(4）心理停顿是表达情感的需要。在口头交际过程中，表达者自己的心理感受的变化以及希望给予对方的各种

心理暗示，都是通过心理停顿体现出来的。心理停顿的时间一般比较长，不太受其他三种停顿的限制。逻辑停顿与心理停顿不能截然分开，但是二者在实际表达中也有不同的表现和功能。逻辑停顿常常重在强调表达的要点，以引起听者的注意，停顿时间一般比较短。心理停顿主要是为适应情感表达以及某种特殊的需要，一般不受时间限制，也不太受语音停顿和逻辑停顿习惯的限制，主要是为了引起听者的特殊注意，把对方的注意点引到所表达的内容上来。

有一个精彩的例子可以帮助学习者理解停顿的妙用。如：有一次，周恩来总理与谈判代表辩论，他机敏的话语，犀利的言辞，驳得对方理屈词穷。于是，对方代表恼羞成怒，说："对牛弹琴！"这时，周恩来总理灵机一动，接过话题，当即顶了回去，说："对！牛弹琴！"⒂这一用例既是语法停顿，也是逻辑停顿，同时也是心理停顿。语法停顿，改变了原来的句子成分之间的关系，一句变成两句；逻辑停顿强调了自己所要表达的两个句子；心理停顿主要是要引起对方对自己反其意而用之的特殊注意。

再看一例："马：中国的酒文化，厉害呀！陆：你怎么会有这种看法呢？"（节选自《新实用5》第 54 课，第 81 页）——这一例课文在"中国的酒文化"与"厉害"主谓之间加了表示逗号停顿，既是表明成分关系的语法停顿也是逻辑强调停顿。从另一个角度看，这实际上是课文编写者考虑到了口语表达中这里需要停顿的实际情况，特意加的逗号。这也在有效地提醒学习者进行角色模仿对话时加以停顿。

再看一个心理停顿的例子："世界上最好的足球运动员，四个字的，叫罗什么来着？ * 我懒得记人的名字。他在场上连动都懒得动，就在对方的门前站着，等球砸到他的时候，踢一脚。这就是全世界身价最高的运动员了。有的人说，他带球的速度惊人，那是废话，别人一场跑 90 分钟，他就跑 15 秒，当然要快些了。"（《"懒人"创造了世界》节选自《中文天天读 ·5B》第 8 课课文，第 52 页）——例中加"*"的后面需要安排心理停顿以引起注意，强调"我"实际上知道，同时也是给听众一点思考的时间。在这个地方，可以指导参与演讲的学习者加一些体态语如表情语或手势语来加强其心里停顿的暗示效果。

2.2.4 调节语速

语速，就是说话的速度。在一段口头表达中，要根据课文内容的具体需要来控制。正常情况下，比如叙述、说明、解释时，一般用中速表达；在庄重场合或需要表现冷静的风格时，一般用慢速表达；在需要表达情绪大起大落或需要表现昂扬激荡的情感或表达重要的评论时，可以用快速表达。教材中的课文，一般性的表达比较多见，语流一般应该保持在适中的速度上，平稳中追求一些变化，顺畅中安排一些起伏，使语速、表达内容与表达情绪有机地联系在一起。教学的重点是，要注意引导学习者对比或快或慢的不同语速所传达出的不同的情感。教学的前提条件是：学习者必须首先能够流畅顺畅地读出课文，在这个基础上，语速内容才能融入训练。如：

a 从前，有一个小岛，上面住着快乐、悲哀、知识和爱，还有别的各种情感。//b 一天，情

感们听说小岛要下沉了。因此，大家便去准备船只，想尽快离开小岛。只有爱决定留下来，她想坚持到最后一刻。//c 又过了几天，小岛真地开始慢慢下沉。爱也想离开，她来到海边等着。这时，富裕刚好坐着一条大船从海边经过。爱便请求他："富裕先生，你能带我走吗？" 富裕回答："不，我的船上有许多金银财宝，没有你的位置。" 富裕说完就开着船走了。//d 不久，爱又看见虚荣驾驶着一只漂亮的小船来到海边，爱又向他请求："虚荣先生，帮帮我吧！" 虚荣连想都没想就拒绝了："爱，对不起，我帮不了你。你全身湿透了，会弄脏我这只漂亮的小船的。" 说完，他也走了。//e 又过了一些时候，悲哀和快乐也一前一后向海边驶过来了。爱先向悲哀请求："悲哀呀，让我跟你一起离开这儿吧！" 悲哀哭着回答："噢，爱，我实在是太悲哀了，想自己一个人静静地呆一会儿！对不起，你去求快乐帮忙吧！" //f 快乐驶了过来，但她太快乐了，竟然没有听见爱的呼喊和请求。//g 正当爱因为得不到帮助而感到绝望的时候，她突然听到一声亲切的呼唤："过来吧，爱，让我们来帮助你离开这座快要沉默的小岛。" 爱感到很奇怪。说话的竟然是一位白发苍苍的老人。她便匆匆坐进了老人驾驶的木船。当木船靠岸时，老人便悄悄地走了。//h 爱上岸后，走到一位正在读书的老人面前，爱问他："请问，您是谁呀？" 读书地老人亲切地回答："我是知识老人！" "那位帮我的老人又是谁呢？" //i 知识老人说："他是时间老人啊！" //j "时间老人？" 爱奇怪地问，"那他为什么要帮助我呢？" //k 知识老人笑着说："因为只有时间，才能理解爱有多伟大。"（《时间与爱》节选自《新实用 5》第 52 课 - 阅读，第 37 页）——显然，对这样的课文，可以采取讲故事的语气，根据故事情节的发展或快或慢地调节语速。a b 段可采取正常语速，交代故事的背景，c d e f 段落可以采取稍快的语速，g h i j k 段可以稍慢，其中的 g、k 部分特别是 k 部分还可以更慢一些，以强调故事的主题。

2.2.5 丰富语气

丰富语气，是指通过调遣能够表示语气的语气助词、语气副词、感叹词以及语调、轻重音甚至停顿等因素来使表达语气丰富多变。教师在教学过程中，要使学习者理解，语气应根据表达的情态千变万化，从而传达出或赞叹、或惊奇、或亲切、或欢快、或叹服、或谴责、或惋惜、或哀伤的种种语气。口语表达中，若能够根据需要巧妙地表达出各种恰当的语气，就会感染听者，调动听者的情绪，使交际双方形成一种和谐的感情共振。如：

a 大家好。今天希望能把我成功的经验和大家分享。//b 世界上很多非常聪明并且受过高等教育的人物无法成功，就是因为他们从小就受到了错误的教育，使他们养成了勤劳的"恶习"。//c 世界上最富有的人，本来只是个小程序员。他懒得读书，大学都没读完就退学了。他又懒得记那些复杂的 dos 命令，于是就自己编了套程序。那个程序叫什么来着？我忘了，我懒得记这些东西。 于是，全世界的电脑都长着相同的脸，而他成了世界首富。……//d 世界如此精彩都是拜懒人所赐。还有更聪明的懒人：懒得爬楼，于是他们发明了电梯；懒得走路，于是他们制造出汽车、火车和飞机；懒得出去听音乐会，于是他们发明了唱片、磁带和 CD。//e 这样的例子太多了，我都懒得再说了。在某种意义上，我们可以说，是"懒人"创造了这个世界。（《"懒

人”创造了世界》节选自《中文天天读·5B》第8课，第52页）——可以要求学习者在读这篇课文的时候，将自己想象成演讲者，当作是自己在演讲，尝试处理并体验其中的语气变化，如对“懒”、“懒人”、“懒惰”、“勤劳的恶习”等正话反说语气的处理——要表现出赞美的语气；如文中“懒”、“懒人”等关键词语的并列性、呼应性的重读等等；如娓娓道来的亲切自然的整体风格等等。实际上要调动这些方面的因素必须经过教师指导，指导学习者在熟悉“自己演讲”的内容的基础上，再来调动变换语气的各种因素，这样学习者才会有收获。要使学习者了解如果在演讲过程中，语气别扭、生硬，不仅不能表达出这篇演讲的基本意思，而且也必然会使听众——至少是下面的同学们产生隔阂感、疏远感，这样自然就达不到演讲的目的了。

2.2.6 协调平仄

主要是使学习者把握现代汉语语音的四个声调，第一声、第二声是平声，第三声、第四声是仄声。另外，使学习者了解平仄相间是汉语的一个十分突出的韵律特征。汉语的诗词曲赋十分严格地讲究声调的平仄交替，追求声音的起伏变化，这已经成为汉语言特有的一种文化现象。在一般的表达中，包括口语和书面语，虽不像诗词曲赋那样要求得十分严格，但是，如果也能注意到声调的平仄相谐，就会使表达在语音上产生低昂交错、抑扬有致的美感。有两个比较极端但比较有说服力的例子可以讲给学习者，如：

｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜　｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜｜

①＊打夜里起就断断续续地下雨，计划去的景点怕是去不了了。

——————————————————————————

②＊他们轻轻哼着乡音山歌，依着山坡舒舒服服伸出胳膊拍拍子。

例①＊从头至尾用的都是仄声字，例②＊从头至尾用的都是平声字，声调上缺乏起伏有致、抑扬顿挫的变化，使表达在音律上单调而沉闷。这说明汉语表达中必须注意调节词语或句子音节的平仄交错。

下面再列举一些《当代中文4》⒃、《中文天天读5B》、《新实用汉语课本5》课文中的一些随机归纳的四字短语（成语、常用表达等等）平仄类型中的八种型式。也有一些呈“｜｜｜｜”、“—————”型式的例子，前者如：各种各样、进步很快、热烈讨论、简化汉字、电话号码、正式会谈、暴饮暴食；后者如：空巢家庭、增加工资、发达国家、新民周刊等。这样的全仄或全平类型的词语，一般在下文对应词语的选择上往往选择平仄不同类型的词语进行相间搭配。

教材名称	平仄搭配类型举例与用例							
	——｜｜	｜｜——	—｜—｜	｜—｜—	—｜——	｜｜—｜	——｜—	—｜｜—
当代中文 4	轻而易举 人高马大	真有福气 热烈欢迎	不治之症 能够实现	大吃一惊 讨人喜欢	无论如何 行政人员	净化空气 美化环境	家庭负担 非常用功	国际卫星 思想负担
中文天天读 5B	登高俯瞰 谈婚论嫁	最后通牒 众所周知	精力充沛 生态环境	与生俱来 罪魁祸首	丰富生活 无数心思	缓解压力 一举突破	华而不实 风行一时	人类健康 丁宠一族
新实用汉语课本 5	琳琅满目 千方百计	祸不单行 四世同堂	不动声色 能唱能跳	奋不顾身 造成问题	春困秋乏 白发苍苍	感到绝望 漫漫长夜	完全放心 推迟演出	沉默寡言 安慰病人

举这些例子的目的不在于说明四字短语平仄搭配的类型，而在于说明在教学过程中，教师可以抓住很多机会特别是词语教学的机会让学习者理解并把握汉语词语搭配平仄相间的韵律特征，并可以由此扩大到理解汉语平仄搭配在句子线性节奏上的错落展开与上下句对称参差布局的韵律特征。实际上，汉语古今文章大家以及众多优秀文章在语音方面都非常注意追求铿锵和谐、抑扬顿挫的表达效果。老舍先生在《关于文学的语言问题》一文中说："我写文章不仅要考虑每一个字的意义，还要考虑到每一个字的声音，……上一句末了用了一个仄声字，下一句我就要用一个平声字，让句子念起来叮当响。"(17)这些语音修辞经验应该让学习者明了。在语言表达中，特别是在口头表达中，一定要注意声调的平仄交替，避免全用平声字或全用仄声字，特别是在上下文词语对称的地方或句尾停顿的地方要避免使用同一个声调的词语，使平仄交互搭配，使表达产生铿锵起伏的立体美感。

2.2.7 和谐节奏

语言表达中的节奏，是一个比较复杂的综合性概念。一般讲，节奏与表达中停顿的错落有致、语调的抑扬顿挫、语气的轻重缓急、回环往复等方面的因素都有关系。节奏一般分为轻快型、凝重型、低沉型、高亢性、舒缓型、紧张型等几种。教学要点实际上只有两个：一是节奏调整，二是节奏转换。关于后者，在教学过程中一定要给学习者讲清楚，在实际的口语表达中这几种节奏常常处于转换状态，使表达在快与慢、抑与扬、轻与重、虚与实等角度中取得和谐的效果。前者节奏调整方面，主要是要做到音节、音步的搭配匀整、平稳，给人以整齐和谐的美感。为了音节、音步的平稳，首先应尽量选用音节相称的词语，使之互相搭配和互相对应，如单音节匹配或对应单音节；双音节匹配或对应双音节；多音节匹配或对应多音节等等。在教学过程中根据课文内容，注意引导学习者注意各种常见的平稳的搭配，如"加以学习"、"互相帮助"等等，如果打乱这种整齐的双音节之间的搭配，说成"加以学"、"互相帮"，就会拗口，不顺耳。再如"见树不见林"与"只见树木不见森林"，这两种表达形式中单音节与双音节的不同的选择搭配，主要是出于音节平稳的需要。其次，还可以通过对词语音节的扩充或压缩来达到节奏平稳的目的。如：

①“人们常常将素食主义者理解为因宗教、民族的原因，或者因某种奇怪的习惯而不吃鸡、鸭、鱼、肉等动物性食品的人。但我们所说的‘新素食主义者’，既不是信仰某种宗教，也不是扮‘酷’，更不是吃腻了大鱼大肉。”(《新素食主义来了》《新实用5》第55课-课文，第85页）——前面的句子表达成“鸡、鸭、鱼、肉”——四个单音节搭配成四字短语，下文的句子用“大鱼大肉”——两个双音节搭配成四字短语，这种调整就是为了和谐节奏的需要。

②南京剪纸历史悠久，生气勃勃，巧夺神工；刀工饱满挺进，疏密结合，玲珑剔透；风格健康朴实，浑厚饱满，清新秀丽；构图花中有花，景中有景，题中有题；纹样粗中有细，拙中见实，静中寓动。(南京博物馆《南京风物志》⒅）——这段补充阅读材料，斜体字部分双音节之间搭配；下划线部分单音节之间搭配。构成相同的四字一顿，三顿一组的内部鼎对的整齐的五个排比句式。其中一系列单音节的搭配中，特别是其中“题中有题”的搭配，比较明显的是将“题材”或“主题”的音节进行了压缩。这些努力的结果，使表达产生了鲜明的音步和谐、节奏明快的美感。

3. 融入式语音修辞教学方法

3.1 融入式语音修辞教学内涵

融入式语音修辞的教学方法，不是专门地单独讲授语音修辞知识，而是将重读、语调、停顿、语速、语气、平仄、节奏等语音修辞内容融入到中高级阶段的各种课型之中，具体说，就是融入相关层级的基础（综合）汉语、听力、口语、阅读、写作等课程之中，结合具体课文，潜移默化、润物无声地实施教学。其中课堂教学、课下活动、效果评估等三个层面的问题需要认真探讨。

3.2 融入式语音修辞教学的三个层面

3.2.1 课堂教学

3.2.1.1 课堂教学中融入修辞教学内容需注意的问题

至少需要注意以下八个方面的问题：第一，不能将语音修辞教学内容理解为简单的理论阐释并仅仅停留在这一层面，而是要结合具体教学课文自然切入，将其体现到词语、句子、段落乃至全文，在正常的课堂教学过程中“润物无声”地展开。第二，切忌将语音修辞内容置于课堂正常教学内容之上，流于形式。第三，根据课文的题材和体裁，恰当融入上述重读、语调、

停顿、语速、语气、平仄、节奏等相关语音修辞教学内容以及朗读、演讲、背诵的教学以及训练内容。第四，所融入的语音修辞教学与训练内容的篇幅，要逐渐温和地扩展，开始可能是一段，逐渐扩大开去，题材与题材合适的课文可以扩展到整篇。第五，教学过程要注意教师的示范作用。第六，要考虑到学习者的接受能力，根据学习者可以接受的程度选择性地融入特定语音修辞教学内容。第七，上述重读、语调、停顿、语速、语气、平仄、节奏等相关语音修辞教学内容的融入与练习以及检测方法，不能千篇一律，千人一面，要因课型、课文题材、课文体裁、对象接受程度而异。第八，在教学过程中，对所融入的修辞教学内容的教学效果的评估，不能急功近利，宜本着持之以恒的原则，于教学的细节之处，长久坚持，必会使学习者大有收获。

3.2.1.2 运用有效的练习方式和检测方法

练习方式与检测方法要互相呼应，以能够有效检测课堂教学过程中所融入的语音修辞教学的效果为目的。如，口语课可以采用运用自然口语腔调对话、模仿角色表演、课前小演讲等方法；听力课可以采用模仿复述的方法；综合汉语课和阅读课可以采取朗读或背诵精彩段落与经典文章的方法，还可以根据课文的体裁，采用讲故事、演讲的方法，能够做到绘声绘色最好。这些方法都能够十分有效地使学习者通过反复吟诵在记诵中培养汉语语感。

关于朗读教学，中国的中小学母语朗读教育有很多经验可以借鉴，事实上，目前不仅汉语作为外语教学在借鉴汉语母语教学中的朗读教学，中国很多大学的外语专业教学也在借鉴并利用各种机会介入朗读训练。但是汉语作为外语教学过程中的朗读内容的融入与中国中小学母语朗读教学的角度、要求、目的等都不尽相同，在汉语作为外语教学过程中融入这些内容，主要目的是为了培养学习者的地道的汉语语感。比如，《新实用汉语课本 · 第 5 册》第 58 课是朱自清的散文《背影》，第 60 课会话部分安排了余光中的诗《乡愁》，这本身就是结合课文内容进行朗读训练的大好时机，相关的音频视频材料很容易找到，可以要求学习者模仿着练习散文朗诵和诗歌朗诵。

中高级阶段写作课，仍然可以融入语音修辞教学内容。但情况稍微复杂一些。有些内容，如（1）词语线性搭配组合的韵律规律；（2）相关句子的前后偶对、三句鼎对、交错对称以及句子展开顺序的节奏规律等等。这些内容在写作课教学应该已经教授给学习者的前提下，对其效果的检测，可以通过两种方法进行：（1）将学习者应该掌握的相关语音修辞内容融入到作文的批改与评语之中；（2）讲评作文时，可以选择若干比较好的作文，请学习者自己朗读、演讲乃至背诵。使学习者通过带感情地朗读、背诵或脱稿演讲自己的文章来体会其中的语音修辞情态。以《新素食主义来了》（《新实用 5》第 55 课 - 课文第 85 页）为例，这篇课文若作为写作的范文，教师要着重分析其中的整句部分的表达形式和表述内容，分析其中各个句式互相呼应的逻辑联系。

总之，以一个班的学生为例，如果能在同一个班的各种课型之中坚持有效地融入语音修辞教学内容，进行各有侧重的训练，并坚持辅之以有效的检测方法，那么，可以断言，语音修辞

这盘棋就能够下出生气，这个班的学生也就一定能够深切地感受并有效地把握汉语语感，逐渐掌握地道的汉语。

3.2.2 效果评估

3.2.2.1 学习者方面

说服学习者接受教师建议的有效的练习与检测的方式，而且布置的所有的朗读、演讲、背诵等等练习检测后都应记录成绩并按比例计入到期末总评之中（学生可以随时查阅自己的成绩记录）。学习者一旦接受并认可，就会积极配合，练习与检测的工作就可以有效地进行。有一些练习方式，开始实施时有的学生不一定积极配合。比如背诵的方法，日本和韩国留学生一般不会提出什么异议，但是欧美等国家的某些学生总是会找出各种理由不积极配合。针对这种情况，必须采取一定的策略。有时候需要在课下找一位或几位欧美学生开小灶辅导，他们在课堂上的表现往往具有示范作用。练习或检测伊始，课堂上如果有一位欧美学生朗读或者背诵成功，可以通过夸张一些的赞美甚至溢美之辞在一定程度上将其成果扩大化，从而增加、强化或者巩固学生的自信心，顺利推进接下来的各种练习以及检测活动。再比如朗读，不论是那个国家的学生对较为夸张的读法都会感到不好意思，特别是日本留学生不太愿意配合。这首先需要教师精心营造出一定的氛围，创设相关情景，创造出一种适合朗读的气场。另外，教师自己要注重做好示范以及引导工作。

最重要的是，教师特别要善于抓住各种机会，经常引导学习者评价自己坚持背诵、演讲以及朗读所取得的实际效果，让学习者经常品尝成功的喜悦，增强其完成朗读、演讲以及背诵等相应任务的积极性与自觉性。最终学习者会明白，坚持下去益处很多。我们教过的一个班的学生们最后很习惯也很享受在讲台上向同学们展示自己精心准备的“作品”的过程。学生们反馈的信息中谈到的最多的是关于品尝成功的“愉悦感受”。

3.2.2.2 教师方面

教师在教学过程中，应该不断进行自我评估，如融入的语音修辞内容是否科学合理、是否与课文紧密结合、训练的方法是否切实可行、学习者的接受程度存在怎样的差别、是否被学习者理解并掌握等等，根据实际情况，随时调整。

3.2.3 课下活动

充分利用学习者参加文娱表演、参与相关比赛的机会，鼓励学习者表演语言类节目，如朗诵、相声、快板儿、小话剧等等，并在课下认真辅导学习者。

充分利用课间或者课下与学习者接触的机会，尽量多用自然汉语交际，即使是谈非常简单的问题也一样能做到与学习者绘声绘色地交流。

总而言之，将相关修辞内容融入汉语作为外语教学之中，不应该是一个阶段的权宜之计，一门课程的权宜之计，而是要长期贯穿在课堂与课下的各种相关教学过程中。修辞内容教学，实际上不仅仅在于使学习者掌握汉语修辞技能本身，而是要使其把握道地的汉语语感，培养其

自觉的修辞意识，最终目的是为了提高学习自觉运用修辞策略流畅地进行口语交际和书面语表达的能力。学习者的这种能力，仅仅依靠语音、词汇、语法的本体教学是不能完全训练出来的，必须依靠相关的修辞教学切入到表达的语用平面才能使之切实有效地提高。

注释：

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从加强思维能力到提高口语表达能力的教学模式
——以高中华文作为第二语言的学生为例

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摘　要：2012 年新加坡 H1 华文口语新评估方式侧重考核学生现场口头报告的能力以及与别人互动的能力，这种强调思维能力与口语表达技能的评估方式尚未有人作出系统性的研究。本文以英国学者 Stella Cottrell 的批判性思考模式以及 Krashen 的“输入假说”和 Swain 的“输出假说”为理论依据，以思维导图作为教学的工具，针对 20 名高一学生展开四个月的校本行动研究。研究结果显示学习者的口语能力获得提升，学习态度也由消极被动变得积极主动。

关键词：母语教学改革　口头报告能力　思维能力

1. 研究背景与目的

随着现代社会的发展、教育趋势的变化以及 21 世纪人才的需求，新加坡高中 H1 华文的评估方式也做出调整。首先，口试的占分比重从过去的百分之十五增加到百分之二十五，增加幅度是百分之十。其次，取消朗读的项目，换成考生作 2 分钟的口头报告以及考官针对学生口头报告的内容进行提问。此外也增加了“看图说话”这一项，考生必须根据照片与考官进行大约 5 分钟的对话，发表自己的看法与观点。过后，考官再根据照片延伸话题，与考生进行对话。

“看图说话”与“对话”这两部分的占分比重是百分之十五。

新的口语评估方式的调整说明了口语在现代社会中日趋重要。“口头报告”的新考核方式完全符合国际评估方式的新趋势，也符合现代社会上职场的需求。其次，“看图说话”这个考核项目以看图诱发学生的口语产出。众所周知，现代社会处于一个被图像包裹的时代，广告、海报、标志处处皆有。因此，新评估方式中“看图说话”中的照片将更贴近学生的生活，提供学生更为真实的情境。这种新考核方式无疑对学生的观察能力、应变能力、思维能力、表达能力都是一种很有效的测试方式。更重要的是，新的评估方式也以教育部在 2010 年 3 月制定的“21 世纪技能框架”为考量，致力于培养学生在 21 世纪所需要具备的知识、技能与价值观。

口语评估方式作了如此大幅度的修订，但是新加坡的学生在口语课堂上基本保持沉默，参与课堂教学活动时态度较消极被动，不愿意积极参与。就算与老师或班上同学进行口语互动时，也是思路紊乱，无法有条理地表达意见，在词穷的情况下，往往参杂英语，而且需要用很长的时间思考如何回应。 他们面临的问题，不仅是语文水平不高、词汇贫乏的问题，更是缺乏口头语言中的思维训练。

研究团队在学生正式上课前给 20 名学生进行了前测以了解学生的弱点，发现大部分的学生口语表现都不理想。而研究团队针对学生对华文以及口语所抱持的态度与想法所做的一个前问卷调查，也显示大部分的学生认为自己针对严肃或重要课题要发表看法时只能勉强应付，也不认为自己的华语口语水平好，甚至有百分之四十的学生觉得自己的水平很差。

因此，本研究团队从各方面探寻问题的根源之后，想探讨以下两个问题：

一、以批判思考模式理论及其特色为依据，通过思维导图这种思维工具设计教学活动，能否提升学生的思维能力？

二、以互动教学法为理论基础，通过设计以学生为中心的互动教学活动，学生的学习态度能否改善？口语表达能力是否有所提升？

2. 文献综述

言语的过程即是思维的过程，两者是相辅相成的。思维的发展能够提高语言的表述力，语言的发展又可以加强思维的周密度。因此，学校老师除了加强学生“说”的外显行为能力，也必须发展学生的思维能力。因此，我们以批判思考和互动教学作为我们的理论依据。

2.1 批判思维能力

到目前为止，批判性思维的定义可说是众说纷纭，还没有一个统一的定论。但是，专家学者都肯定它是当今社会一项重要的技能，是一套思考的程序，步骤和技巧，能够帮助我们有条

理地组织各种概念、知识，以进行正确的论述。

英国学者 Stella Cottrell 认为“批判性思考是一种复杂的思辨活动，涉及广泛的技巧与态度，包括：学会运用逻辑，更深入也更有系统地去思考各种议题、表达个人观点时能够条理分明，足以说服他人。”Stella Cottrell 也认为要建立并提出理由，需要拥有这些技巧：要能挑选适合的理由，妥善安排，以支持结论、要能提出前后呼应的论述内容、要懂得符合逻辑顺序、要会使用简洁有力的语言。更重要的是，Stella Cottrell 相信“批判性思考的技巧是可以培养的”，这种思维方法“不是天性或个性，而是一套方法，教你用特定的步骤，检视各项证据。”（Stella Cottrell，2010，pp.11-13)

2.2 互动教学

美国语言学家 Stephen Krashen 在八十年代提出了著名的语言输入假说 (The Input Hypothesis)，认为语言输入应该遵循“ I + 1”原则。他用 i 表示学习者现有的水平，1 表示略高于 i 的水平。Krashen 认为人们学习语言是通过输入略高于现有的能力水平的信息与新的内容而习得的，语言输入不应该太接近他现阶段的水平，但是也不能远远超过学习者所能达到的水平。理想的语言输入应该既有趣又有关联，而且有足够的输入量，有一定的挑战性。如此一来，学习者才能根据自己的水平，不断努力，吸收新的语言材料，逐步提高其学习语言的技能。学习者的语言水平就可由 i 发展到 i + 1。

M. Swain 通过对当时加拿大推行法语为第二语言的沉浸式教学的长期研究发现：只有大量的可理解输入而没有准确性的输出也无法成功学习语言。因此，她提出“输出假说”（The Output Hypothesis）, 指出只有通过语言表达和语言实践才可以提高语言表达的准确性与流畅性，并论述了输出假设的主要功能有三个：注意功能、假设检验功能和原语言功能。在这三种功能中，我们特别重视注意功能。它是指语言输出能促使学习者注意到自身的语言能力和所要表达的内容之间的差距，于是他们就会进行有意识的分析，再产出修正后的输出，提高语言输出的准确性、完整性和流利度，这不仅会促进语言的学习，还能促进学习者思维能力的提高。

语言的输入、输出和互动的关系是非常密切的。因为语言的输入不会自动转化为输出；从输入到输出，这中间有一个过程，这个过程即是通过各式各样的互动，如师生互动、生生互动、小组互动等等获得的。只有在这种频密的互动过程中，语言的输入与输出有机地紧密结合，把握语言的交际功能，在这样的互动式教学中，才能达到语言学习的目的，同时提升学习者的思维能力。

3. 研究方法

3.1 研究对象

本研究针对初级学院的 20 名高一学生展开四个月的校本行动研究。这 20 名学生分成两班，每一班各有 10 名学生，分别由两名教龄都超过 25 年的资深老师执教。这 20 名学生的家庭用语都是英语，在家里和学校主要是以英语沟通，以英文思考。他们极少主动阅读华文书籍，华语口语的表达能力也弱。对他们而言，华文只是一个考试科目，不是他们生活中的常用语言。

3.2 数据收集

研究团队采用了定性（包括前后口语问卷调查、教师和学生的反馈、学生口语录音、课堂观察）和定量（前后测口语成绩）相结合的方法来收集数据与资料。

前后口语问卷调查的内容完全相同，主要是根据新加坡的特殊教学环境和学生的学习特点进行调查；两班的起始问卷和终结问卷都是学生在家里上网完成的。前后测口头报告和看图说话的内容大致相同，而且是经过 3 名资深教师共同鉴定为难易度基本上一样，适合实验的学生作答。

在实验期间，我们多次针对学生的表现进行录像，以作为教学设计和评估的参考。后测结束后，两名执教教师写下他们数月来的教学反思，并和学生进行访谈，了解学生对新的教学设计的反馈。

4. 教学策略

4.1 教学步骤

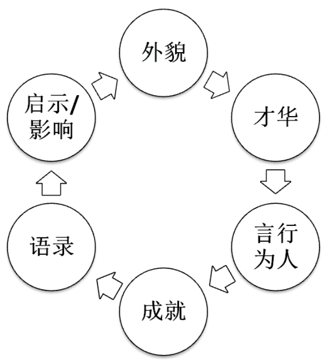
本研究之口语教学就是秉持上述批判思考理论与互动教学理论，将批判思考技能与互动融入口语教学设计。基本上 ，每一个课题都会进行以下这 6 个步骤，但是会随着每个课题的不同而做出调整与修订 。兹以选修单元中的《音乐与电影欣赏》这个主范畴中的 < 偶像 > 为例，进一步说明教师在进行口头报告教学时的课堂教学步骤。

步骤 1：导入活动

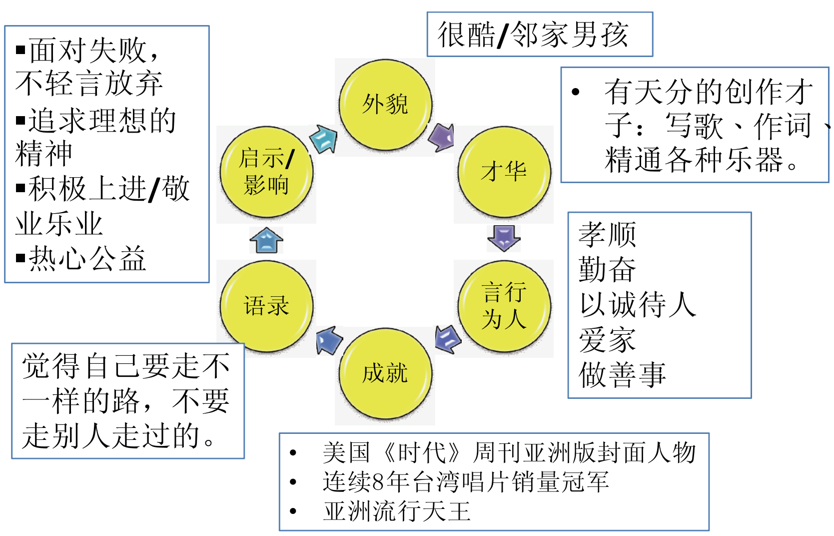
教师可以通过视频、图片进行导入活动，辅以师生、生生互动教学法，调动学生的先备知识，让学生进行讨论，讨论的课题包括心仪的偶像、崇拜偶像的原因与利弊，过后老师再给他们语言输出的机会。这个导入活动的目的是让学生发现自己在口头表达或陈述论点时的毛病。

步骤 2：思维导图

思维图对一个高中学生并不陌生，教师借由英国著名教育学者兼心理学家 Tony Buzan 在 20 世纪 60 年代开发的这种思维工具来教导学生如何发表个人的看法。 思维导图能帮助学生整合讯息，理清思路，掌握说话内容的脉络，大大有助于提高学生的思维能力，而这整个过程都是由学生在与老师、同学、或小组互动时建构的知识。例如下图所示，图一的思维图让学生学会从不同的角度谈论偶像。图二则进一步细化，针对逐个角度谈论，学习并巩固如何通过思维图来思考。



图一



图二

步骤 3：举例论证

教导学生在做口头报告或陈述论点时，需要列举 2--3 个真实而又有代表性的事例作论据，以证明自己的观点正确。教师会提醒学生所举的事例既要与课题有必然的联系，又要有代表性，能发挥以点带面的作用。例如：教导学生从不同的角度谈有关电影偶像的课题：即外形、才华、电影代表作等等。每一个角度都通过例子详细说明。这个环节也是老师做简单的说明之后，就通过师生互动、生生互动的方式让学生举出各个例子来与其他学习者交流。

步骤 4：词汇及句型的输入与输出

教师会提供有关课题的词汇与句型给学生作为一种语言的输入。但是，教师非常重视创设真实的语境，让学生在真实的交际活动中发展其语言能力和交际能力，在自然的交流环境中反复学习词汇与句型。

步骤 5：分组讨论，罗列重点

老师会提供各种和选修单元有关的题目，让学生根据之前所学的自行讨论，用 5 分钟的时间写下重点，过后呈现 2 分钟的口头报告。老师在整个过程中只是扮演辅导者、协调者的角色，学生才是课堂中的主人。

步骤 6：口头报告与评价活动

老师会指定学生根据题目作两分钟的发言，过后再根据评量表①进行评价与反馈。时间允许的情况下，老师也会要求学生根据评量表进行同侪互评，目的是学生能够取长补短，同时刺激思维，并提升自己与他人互动的技巧。

5. 研究结果与讨论

5.1 两次问卷调查结果

研究团队针对学生对华文以及口语所抱持的态度做了前后问卷调查，结果显示：

❖ 喜欢上华文课的学生从实验前的 40% 增加到 68%，增幅为 28%，说明了以学生为中心的互动教学设计能够调动学生的兴趣与积极性。

❖ 有信心针对一些严肃或重要的话题当众发表自己的看法的学生从实验前的 20% 增加

① 教师会根据高中新评估标准的评量表重新编制一套适合学生做同侪互评的较简单的评量表。

到 42%，增幅为 22%，而对自己没有信心或认为只能够勉强应付的学生则从 80% 减至 58%，这个数据说明了学生在经过 4 个月思维技能训练与口语训练之后，信心大增，能够有条有理地针对严肃课题侃侃而谈。

❖ 学生在实验前后都认为华文口语是重要的，在数据上没有显着的改变。在评估自己的华语口语水平时，虽然学生们对自己的口语水平仍然没有很强的信心，但是实验前认为自己很差的已经从 40% 减至 16% ，而认为自己水平“还好”的则从 60% 增加到 79%。这些数据说明了老师在课堂上的思维与口语互动技能训练都产生了效果。

表 1：前后问卷调查

	Q1. 你是否喜欢上华文课？			
	非常喜欢	喜欢	还好	不喜欢
调查前	2（10%）	6（30%）	11（55%）	1（5%）
调查后	4（21%）	9（47%）	6（32%）	0（0%）
	Q2. 你觉得华文口语重要吗？			
	非常重要	重要	有点重要	不重要
调查前	9（45%）	8（40%）	3（15%）	0（0%）
调查后	10（53%）	6（32%）	3（16%）	0（0%）
	Q3. 你有信心针对一些严肃或重要的话题当众发表自己的看法吗？			
	非常有信心	有信心	勉强应付	没有信心
调查前	1（5%）	3（15%）	12（60%）	4（20%）
调查后	0（0%）	8（42%）	8（42%）	3（16%）
	Q4. 你认为你的华语口语水平如何？			
	非常好	很好	还好	很差
调查前	0（0%）	0（0%）	12（60%）	8（40%）
调查后	0（0%）	1（5%）	15（79%）	3（16%）

5.2 教师反思与学生反馈

学年刚开始的前几次口语课，老师经过仔细观察后，发现学生在口语课堂上较被动，不愿意在班上以华语发言。就算与老师或班上同学进行互动时，也无法有条理地发表看法，在词汇量贫乏的情况下，往往词不达意，只能参杂英语来说明，而且经常停顿，无法完整、准确流利地表达自己的意见。

但是，经过几个月的教学，教师发现学生最大的进步就是思维能力获得显着的提升，能够有组织、有条理地说话。具体而言，即是学生在做口头报告时，懂得先表明立场，然后提出至

少两个论点，过后再通过举例加以论证，结束前也会做一个简短的总结。2 分钟的口头报告看得出他们已经学会用思维图组织内容，写下重点。虽然他们在呈现报告时还是有语病，但是词汇量与句型明显比以前丰富，说起话来比较流畅；语塞、停顿太久的的现象已经大大减少。至于“看图说话”这一个项目，教师不必像刚开始时不断地引导学生，学生能根据图片自行发挥，有准备的同学甚至懂得运用教过的词汇，表现不俗。

学生则认为老师在班上提供给他们说话的机会，无论是口头报告或看图说话都比刚开始时有信心。他们都觉得现在已经能够在不需要老师的帮助下，自由发表自己的看法 。学生也认为上课的内容贴近他们的日常生活，因此觉得学习华语有实际的用途。更让他们觉得有成就感的地方是与人沟通时，不需要再参杂英文词汇，因为老师在上课时提供真实的语境，让他们在不知不觉中掌握了丰富的词汇量。例如，当他们在报告“网络”这个话题时，“下载”、“搜索”、“推特”、“面簿”、“视频”、“安装”、“社交网站”、“资讯”这些词汇再也无须以英文表达。

5.3 前后测试成绩

研究团队也通过定量研究法来测量学生口语成绩的改变。研究数据显示，学生后测的口语表现明显比前测表现优越。本研究采用成对样本 T 检定 (paired-sample T-test) 分析实验班级的前后测总分是否有显着的提高。成对样本 T 检定 (paired-sample T-test) 显示实验班级的后测总分 (平均值 =33.30，标准差 =0.94) 对比前测总分 (平均值 =27.50，标准差 =1.25) 有显着的提高 (t =-6.19，p= .000)(见表 2)。前后测口语测试分为口头报告与看图说话两部份。本研究进一步分析两种口语测试的个别成绩，结果显示实验班级两种口语测试的后测成绩相比前测皆有显着提升。成对样本 T 检定 (paired-sample T-test) 结果显示，在口头报告部份，实验班级的后测成绩 (平均值 =13.85，标准差 =0.39) 对比前测成绩 (平均值 =11.20，标准差 =0.45) 有显着的提高 (t =-6.43，p= .000)(见表 3)。在看图说话部分，后测成绩 (平均值 =19.45，标准差 =2.84) 对比前测成绩 (平均值 =16.30，标准差 =3.83) 也有显着的提高 (t =-4.91，p= .000)(见表 4)。

表 2　学生口语前后测成绩

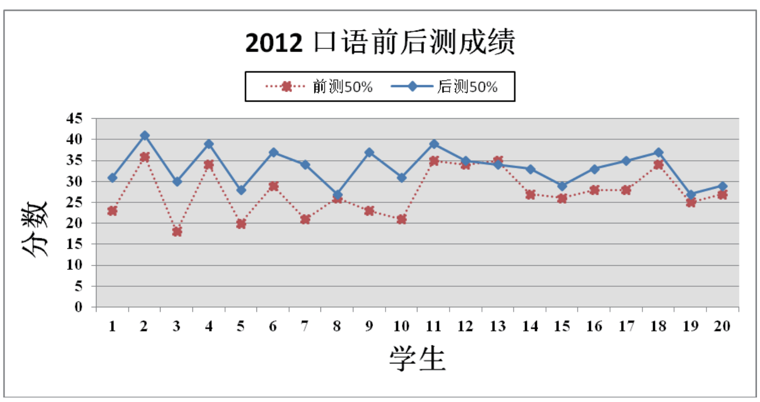


表 3　口头报告前后测成绩

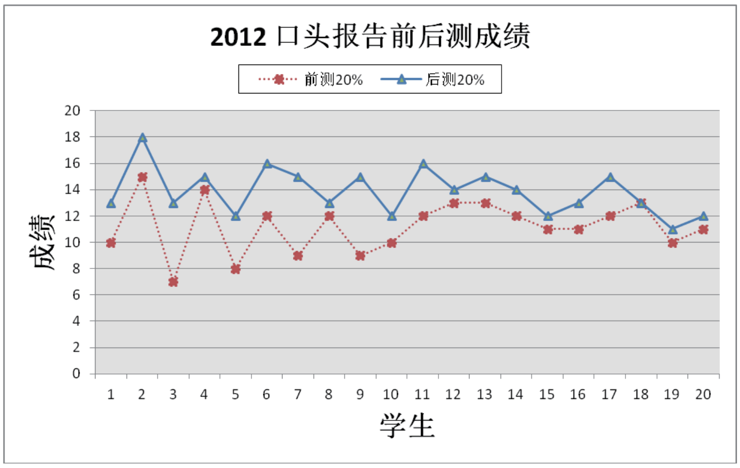
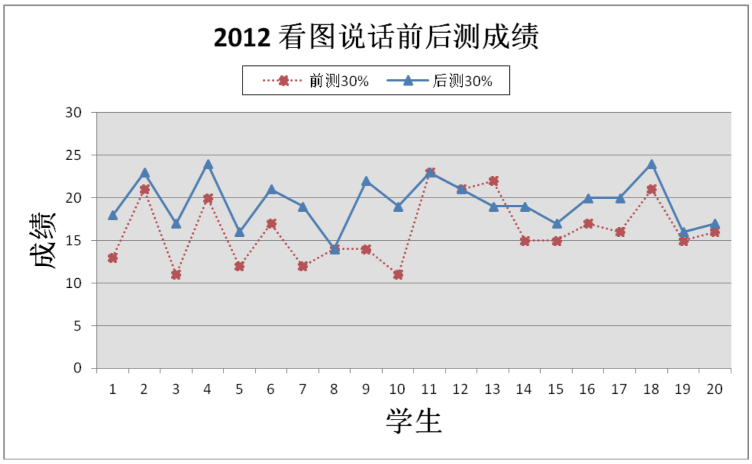


表 4　看图说话前后测成绩



5.4 前后测分项成绩分析

口头报告和看图说话的测试项目包括 6 个向度，分别是：流利度、内容组织、个人回应、阐述见解、语文表达、参与度和与观众交流。（见表 4）

表 4：分项测试成绩

测试向度	95% 置信区间	项目满分为
流利度	(0.882, 1.62)	8
内容组织	(0.706, 1.69)	8
个人回应	(0.410, 1.19)	8

阐述见解	(0.242, 1.16)	8
语文表达	(0.441, 1.16)	8
参与度	(0.324, 1.18)	6

比较两次的测试，学生在其中两个项目的进步有较明显的进步。以 95% 置信区间的平均数来看，‘流利度’和‘内容组织’两个项目取得 0.7-1.69 分的进步，这两个项目的满分是 8 分。这两项取得令老师非常满意的成绩是因为教师重点教导学生思维的方式和技巧，尤其侧重教导他们归纳、分类、总结等技巧，所以学生在呈献口头报告时，内容就有条理、有组织。再加上我们的教学模式中的输入知识与语言的部分，学生在词汇和句型方面就少有语病，流利度自然就提高了。

其次，其他的测试项目也显示学生在后测的成绩有进步。‘个人回应’，‘阐述见解’，‘语文表达’三个项目的置信区间平均数介于 0.4-1 分的进步，各个项目的满分是 8 分。‘参与度’的置信区间中数值是 0.3-1.1 分，这项目的满分是 6 分。 这几个向度的进步空间不大，可能是因为仅有 15 周的时间的时间训练，再加上特别侧重内容组织和流利度，因此这 3 个项目不如‘流利度’与‘内容组织’进步那么多。

六、小结

语言表述能力和思维能力是不可分割的，只有思维清晰，说话才会流利连贯。所以在课堂教学中，应当把思维和语言训练有机结合起来。本文所报告的是第一轮的初步研究成果，虽然还有很多不足、需要改善的问题。但是，通过互动口语教学新模式和思维导图，经过 4 个月的实践后，定性与定量的研究都 显示了：(一）学习者的思维技巧是能够通过教学而学习的；(二）思维能力提升了，口语表达能力也肯定能获得加强；(三）学习者也会因为教师采用互动教学法而改变其学习态度。这些都鼓舞了研究团队继续研究，精益求精，争取更好的研究成果。

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赵元任的五度标调法在对外普粤声调教学中的活用

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摘　要：汉语是声调语言，作为汉语语音结构必不可少的声调，是汉语的重要本体特征之一。英语是非声调的语调语言，大多数母语是非声调语言的外国学生对汉语声调没有概念，掌握起来特别困难，说汉语时经常表现得“洋腔洋调”。笔者尝试利用赵元任先生创制的直观的五度标调法，在香港理工大学对外汉语声调教学中，解决了对外汉语普粤声调教学的声调辨读问题，取得了良好的教学效果。

笔者把普通话和粤语的五度标调的对应关系灵活运用在普粤声调教学上，使同时修读普通话和粤语的外国学生善于分辨粤普声调，迅速掌握粤普声调；笔者按照实际发音情况改良了粤普声调符号，并利用五度标调法直观的声调起止音高图表和手势，使外国学生更容易感知理解汉语声调五度标调的发音特征；同时配合汉语二字调的连调练习，把字调记忆和语调记忆联系起来，使外国学生轻松掌握汉语声调各种调类的配合，有效地培养学生的汉语语感。

关键词：五度标调法；对外汉语声调教学；粤普声调对比

一、引言

香港实行“两文三语”的语文政策（“两文”即中文和英文，“三语”即普通话、粤语与英语），入读香港理工大学的外国留学生，在汉语学习中除了要掌握在国际上通用的官方汉语普

通话之外，还希望掌握在香港社会普遍通行的交际语言粤语，以应付日常生活沟通之需。针对这批外国留学生的汉语学习需求，香港理工大学中国语文教学中心每学期除了开高中低程度的汉语普通话班之外，还开两个对外汉语基础粤语班，这两个粤语班的留学生在修读普通话的同时还继续学习粤语。

汉语是声调语言，注重音高变化，利用声音的高低升降来分辨每个字词的意思；英语是语调语言，注重音强变化，把声音的高低升降形势用在整个句子中来表达意思。声调在外国学生的第一语言中没有相应的项目范畴，他们对汉语声调没有感知的概念和经验，声调学习给大多数母语是非声调语言的外国学生带来了极大的困难，他们说汉语时经常表现得“洋腔洋调”。例如他们会按照英语的轻重音习惯来发汉语的声调，或用英语过渡较平缓的升降语调来代替变化落差较大的汉语声调。林焘先生曾指出，“洋腔洋调形成的关键在于声调。在学习汉语语音基本结构阶段，声调教学比声母和韵母教学更为重要一些，但是确实也更难一些。”《语音研究和对外汉语教学》（1997）

普通话四声高低升降调值变化幅度明显，高音成分多，有轻声而没有入声，显得明朗舒缓、强弱轻重有致；粤语的九声六调（除了六个主调外，还有三个以 /p/、/t/、/k/ 辅音韵尾结尾的短促入声调）调值变化幅度不太大，低音成分多，有入声而没有轻声，显得低沉短促。对于已经掌握了一定程度的普通话再去学习粤语的外国学生来说，普通话较简明的四声到了粤语中又分化成较多的九声六调，普粤声调的高低升降关系不尽相同甚至相反，外国学生需要克服已掌握的普通话所形成的声调习惯，逐项加以区分才能更顺利地掌握粤语声调。

针对外国学生的普粤汉语学习的困难，我们把声调教学放在了语音教学的第一位。声调是一种无形的语音成分，在声调教学中，如果能借助一种形象可视可感知的发音模型，学生定会一目了然。目前描述和记录声调最简便有效的方法是赵元任先生所提出的五度标调法。五度标调法记录了声调的起点到终点的音高变化，它自下而上用数字 1、2、3、4、5 分别表示低、半低、中、半高、高五度音高，然后用线条的方式从左至右把各个声调的具体音高变化标出来，通过声调高低升降变化显示各个声调的具体调值。笔者尝试灵活运用赵元任先生创制的直观的五度标调法，在香港理工大学对外汉语声调教学中，把普通话和粤语的五度标调的对应关系灵活运用在粤语的声调教学上，精心选编声调教学材料，设计优化的声调教学法，使同时修读普通话和粤语的外国留学生迅速分辨和掌握普粤声调。另外，笔者利用直观的五度标调线条符号配以动态的手势，给学生以直接深刻的声调视觉印象，使学生身体感知与声调起止同步，并通过各种声调的二字搭配连读变化形式，有效地帮助学生准确体会汉语声调的发音特征，使学生迅速掌握汉语声调的相对变化过程。

二、五度标调法在对外普粤声调教学中的活用

（一）声调的感知、理解和记忆

1. 声调单向线条化、符号直观化

普通话的第三声 **v**（2113）是先降（21）再升（13）的复合曲折调，它是对外汉语声调教学的难点。教师在教”全三声”时，往往要费力地要求外国学生把第三声读完整，把调值先降下来再升上去，学生容易过分强调三声的低升尾调 (13) 而忽略了三声的主体低降调 (21)，以致把第三声读成升调和第二声中升调 (35) 相混淆。

针对外国学生容易混淆普通话二、三声及三声声调降不下来的错误，从普粤声调对比关系出发，我们应用赵元任先生创制的五度标调法，把普通话先降后升的三声复合曲折调 2113 简化成单向的前半三声低降调 21 和后半三声低升调 13。在实际的语流中，复合调“全三声”大多数只发单向的半调：它们是处在第一、二、四声前的“前半三声（低降 21）”，它相当于粤语的第四声低降调 21；处在第三声前面的“后半三声（低升 13）”，它相当于粤语的第五声低升调 13。为了把前、后半三声区别于第四声符号 **(ˋ)** 和二声符号 **(ˊ)** 以及便于电脑输入，我们分别为前半三声和后半三声设计了单向符号﹨﹀和﹀╱。

按实际应用，我们在教普通话第三声的时候，结合改良后的声调符号先确立“前半三声”和“后半三声”这两个简单实用的“半三声”概念，并把使用率较高的“前半三声（低降调﹨﹀ 21）”作为三声的主调进行教学，等学生掌握了两个或降或升的“半三声”后，再教先降后升的复合调“全三声”。经过实践，这一声调教学设计由浅入深，既符合普通话第三声声调的实际应用，同时又便于和粤语声调进行对比教学，受到学生们的欢迎。

抽象的声调离不开直观的声调符号的配合。粤语声调一直没有统一的符号体系去标示，我们应用赵元任先生创制的五度标调法，参照普通话的声调描述和符号，按实际调值把粤语声调划分为 6 类，用形象化的声调符号标示出来：第一声**━**（高平）、第二声╱（中升）、第三声﹍（中平）、第四声﹨﹀（低降）、第五声﹀╱（低升）、第六声﹉（低平），并进行普粤两种语音声调的对比教学。其中粤语的中平调和低平调参照了普通话高平调的符号**━**，在此符号的上下各标示一点以表示中平和低平，低降调和低升调参照了普通话前半三声和后半三声的符号﹨﹀和﹀╱。我们根据汉语声调起止音高的原理归纳出粤语声调的名称，以单向线条符号呈现出汉语声调音高呈单向变化的“平、升、降”的基本调型。见下图：

普通话五度标调法（Tones of Putonghua in 5 scales）

		音高 (pitch)				
高音 (High)	s	5	三 san^1	—		
			零 ling^2	／		
高中音	f	4				
中音 (Mid)	m	3			giu^3 wu^3	
			九 giu^3/ 五 wu^3	v	九（五之尊）	
低中音	r	2			wu^3 si^4	
					五（四运动）	
低音 (Low)	d	1	四 si^4/ 二 er^4	＼		时间
						(time)

粤语五度标调法（Tones of Cantonese in 5 scales）

					入声字	(entering tones)	
		音高 (pitch)					
高音 (High)	s	5	三 saam^1	—		一 jat^1	—
			九 gau^2	／			
高中音	f	4					
中音 (Mid)	m	3	四 sei^3			八 baat^3	
			五 ng^5				
低中音	r	2	二 ji^6			六 luk^6	
低音 (Low)	d	1	零 ling^4				时间
							(time)

2. 声调手势视觉化、动态方向化

声调是一种无形的语音成分，著名语言学家赵元任先生创制的五度标调法，把汉语声调的调类、调号、调值及声调音高起止变化的情况直观地以列表呈现出来，使汉语学习者一目了然地认识和掌握声调，影响深远。笔者进一步优化五度标调法，把静止的声调图表符号通过手势

方向动态地反映出来、外化成起止升降连续运动的感觉，把知识性的声调学习和技能性的信号刺激反应结合在一起，以形象记忆和运动记忆帮助学生理解和感知汉语声调。

诉诸于发音听觉的内在声调，可以转换成诉诸于视觉触觉的外在手势动作指令进一步加强讲解效果。身体的头、胸、腹、胯、腿分别表示低、半低、中、半高、高五度音高，以手势在身体五个标度中划动，手势的起止可以表示声调相对音高的起止幅度。手势的高低可以划分声调的音高，如最高的高平调 55 和最低的低降调 21；手势的快慢可以划分声调的音长，如最短最快的速降调 51 和较长较慢的三声复合曲折调 2113；手势的松紧可以划分声调的音强，如最强的高降调 51 和最弱的轻声。五度标调法图表外化成手势身体动作，使学生的身体感知与声调起止同步，可以加强声调在学生脑中的声音形象。

（二）普粤声调的对比和归纳

林焘先生曾指出，“从声调教学的角度看，重要的是区分调类和调域，按照区别特征理论把普通话的四声特征依次定为高、升、低、降。”（1997）林先生的论述对汉语声调教学有很大的启示作用。虽然粤语和普通话的声调的差别很大，但是普粤声调都是从古汉语音调演变而来的，有同源异流的对应关系，它们之间有内在规律可循。学习普粤声调，只要掌握普通话和粤语的调类调值的对应关系，进行类推或反推，发挥积极的正迁移作用，排除消极的负迁移，“求同记异”，就可以减轻学习者学习两套汉语声调系统的负担，提高汉语声调学习的效率。

在普粤声调的教学设计中，我们抓住普粤声调平、升、降的基本调类调型，利用普粤声调的对应关系，进行普粤声调的对比教学。普通话的四声和粤语的六声的对应关系见下表：

粤语	普通话	例字			
高平 ━ 55	高平 ━ 55	衣	因	司	夫
中升 ／35	主要低降 ＼21	椅	忍	史	苦
中平 — 33	高降 ＼51	意	印	试	富
低降 ＼21	中升 ／35	儿	人	时	符
低升 ／13	主要低降 ＼21 或高降 ＼51	耳	引	市	妇
低平 — 22	高降 ＼51	义	韧	事	付

用以上直观的声调符号和调类调值作对比，让需要掌握普粤两种汉语声调的外国学生对两者声调的起止高低和对应关系都一目了然。我们发现，普通话声调与粤语声调存在着高平对高平、中升对低降、低降对中低升、高降对中低平的对应关系。在对外汉语声调教学之中，学生掌握了这种声调的对应关系，就可以靠着对应规律去判断推测老师课堂上没教过的普通话或广东话字词的声调读法，学习起来便有了积极主动性。在普粤声调教学中，我们抓住“起止音高相同的平调（高平、中平、低平）、低起高止的升调（低升、中升）、高起低止的降调（高降、低降）”这三个基本调型进行普粤的声调对比教学，让学生意识到：学习汉语声调必须努力分辨和掌握起止音高的不同变化，掌握调型的走向趋势。

（三）声调的练习和巩固、表达和运用

声调的学习，需要长时间的不断地练习调整和定型固化。把音素练习与语流练习相结合、把机械性的字调词调练习与有意义的句调语调记忆表达相结合，有助于对声调教学内容进行组织整理，建立声调学习前后的思维联系，帮助学生克服声调学习的困难。

我们以二字连调练习对学生有的放矢地进行声调训练：在普通话声调内部，将高平和高降、高降和中升、高降和低降、四声和轻声进行二字连调练习；在粤语声调内部，把高平和低降、低升和中升、中平和低平进行二字连调练习。通过这些声调对比和类比的组合操练，能有效规范和纠正学生声调发音的起点到终点的音高。例如：

普通话：

高平 (第一声) 和高降 (第四声)：

声调	━ (高平)	╲ (高降)
拼音	tian	xia
例词	天	下

高降 (第四声) 和中升 (第二声)：

声调	╲ (高降)	╱ (中升)
拼音	da	xue
例词	大	学

高平 (第一声) 和低降：

声调	━ (高降)	(低降)
拼音	wen	nuan
例词	温	暖

中升 (第二声) 和低降：

声调	╱ (中升)	(低降)
拼音	han	leng

例词	寒	冷

低升（第三声）和低降：（三声连读变调）

声调	（低升）	（低降）
拼音	mei	hao
例词	美	好

高降（第四声）和低降：（三声连读变调）

声调	＼（高降）	（低降）
拼音	bu	xiang
例词	不	想

四声和轻声：

声调	—	／		＼
拼音	Tiana	Xingma	Haoba	Duiya
例词	天啊！	行吗？	好吧！	对呀！
英语翻译	My god!	Ok?	Alright!	Right!

例句：天啊！ (Oh! My God!) 行吗？（Ok？）好吧。(Alright!) 对呀！（Right!）/ 是的（Yes!）。

普通话和粤语词调和句调示例。

普通话：

声调	—	／		＼	
拼音	Mama	nale	wode	yaoshi	
例词（例句）	妈妈	拿了	我的	钥匙	。

例句：妈妈拿了我的钥匙。(Mum took my keys.)

声调	—	v			／	
拼音	Baba	ba	Xiaomei	zhaole	huilai	
例词（例句）	爸爸	把	小美	找了	回来	。

例句：爸爸把小美找了回来。(Dad took Xiaomei back.)

粤语：

高平和低降：

声调	—（高平）	＼（低降）
拼音	saam	nin
例词	三	年

中升和低升：

声调	／（中升）	／（低升）
拼音	gau	ng

例词	九	五

中平和低平：

声调	＿（中平）	－（低平）
拼音	ji	ji
例词	意	义

把机械性的字调词调练习与有意义的句调语调记忆表达相结合。

粤语：三点半来我度。

Saam1 dim2 bun3 lai4 ngo5 dou6。

声调	—	／	＿	＼	／	－
拼音	Saam	dim	bun	lai	ngo	dou.
例句	三	点	半	来	我	度。

普通话：三点半来我这儿。

San1 dian3 ban4 lai2 wo3 zhe4er。

声调	—	＼／	＼	／	＼／	＼
拼音	Saam	dim	bun	lai	ngo	dou.
例句	三	点	半	来	我	这儿。

在日常生活实际运用中，0-9 十个量化的数字的汉语发音，已经可以把普通话和粤语的所有声调都囊括在内了。在教外国学生普通话和粤语声调时，我们可以从生活化的数字（如说电话号码、学生证号码、出生年月日等）入手，配上相似音高的乐调谱成数字歌，让学生把声调唱出来，既便于学生记忆普通话四声和粤语六声的概念，又可以加强学生读声调的准确性。

数字	3	9	4	0	5	2	1	8	6
声调	—	／	＿	＼	／	－	—	＿	－
拼音	saam	gau	sei	ling	ng	ji	jat	baat	luk

普通话数字歌

声调	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
拼音	Yi	san	qi	ba	pan	gao	shan	
例字 / 句	一	三	七	八	攀	高	山	。
声调	／	／	／	／	／	／	／	
拼音	You	ling	feng	shi	lai	you	wan	
例字 / 句	由	零	逢	十	来	游	玩	。

声调	／	＼	／	＼	／	／	＼	
拼音	Jiu	jiu	wu	gu	hao	mei	man	
例字 / 句	九	九	五	谷	好	美	满	，
声调	＼	＼	＼	＼	＼	＼	＼	
拼音	Er	si	liu	yue	dao	chu	kan	
例字 / 句	二	四	六	月	到	处	看	。

粤语数字歌（改编自香港歌手林子祥的歌曲「 数字人生 」）

简谱乐谱：5，1234，511；6，1234，661；

数字歌词：3，0624，700；3，0624，770；

简谱乐谱：4，54323，43217，1231，2345。

数字歌词：5，34202，13942，4314，0624。

简谱乐谱：5，1234，511；6，1234，661；

数字歌词：3，0624，700；3，0624，770 ；

简谱乐谱：4，54323，43212，32171。

数字歌词：5，34202，13943，13424。

三、结语

声调是汉语音节藉以区别意义的本质特征，一直被认为是汉语语音中最难学的部分。声调准确与否，是衡量汉语学习者语音是否纯正地道的一个重要的“门面”标志，还会影响学习者的汉语交际能力。汉语声调教学是汉语语音学习的初始阶段，更伴随着汉语语音教学的始终。毕竟汉语声调数量不大（普通话四个声调、粤语六个声调），如果声调教学教授得法，可以减低学习者的学习难度，提高其汉语学习的学习兴趣和学习效率。如果不在汉语学习的初始阶段用行之有效的方法及时纠正学生的声调偏误，那么到了汉语学习的高级阶段将很难改正。

根据在香港留学的外国大学生需同时修读普通话和粤语课程的汉语学习实际需要，笔者灵活应用赵元任先生的五度标调法，抓住普粤声调对比，在香港理工大学的对外汉语声调教学中，设计单向线条化、符号直观化的声调符号，并把静态的声调符号通过动态的手势动作视觉化地表现出来，使学生迅速正确地掌握汉语声调的调型调值、音高音长音强的变化，帮助学生加强对汉语声调的感知、理解和记忆。笔者还精心设计了各种二字连调练习，巩固强化学生对声调的掌握，并通过字调、词调和结合感情的句调、语调表达练习，把字调记忆和语调记忆联系起来，加强声调学习的实践和运用。我们力求把普粤声调的学习课程整合起来，努力建构汉语语音知识能力的横向和纵向联系，帮助学生有效地克服“洋腔洋调”，从而培养自然的汉语语感。

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探讨初级阶段的“把”字句教学

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摘　要：本文从“把”字句的宾语 、动词以及语用效果三方面入手设计教学，希望帮助学生准确理解“把”字句的基本语义、出现的语境和句法要求，以及使用“把”字句的语用效果，使初级阶段的学生尽快熟悉和掌握“把”字句，为将来学习更复杂的“把”字句式打下良好的基础。

关键词：“把”字句教学

引言

“把”字句是对外汉语教学中普遍公认的难点。学者们对“把”字句的句式和语义有详细的分类和解释，对汉语教学有很大帮助，但是教学效果还有待提高。学习者较少主动使用把字句，使用时也常出现错误。对此，我在教授初级阶段的留学生“把”字句时，有了初步的体会。《新实用汉语课本》（刘珣主编）第二册循序渐进分阶段介绍了“把”字句的 两种用法。“把”字句（1）：表示对宾语的处置意义（S+ 把 +O+V+ 了）；“把”字句（2）：表示物体的位移。这一用法含有两个句式：A. 将某物交给某人 s + 把 +O(sth.)+V (to give) +O(sb.)；B. 与简单趋向补语”来”“去”连用 S+ 把 +O+V+ 来 / 去 +（了）。对“把”字句的语义解释，《新实用汉语课本》第二册教师参考书的描述是：“‘把’字句是汉语里经常使用的一种动词谓语句，用来强调说明动作对事物如何处置以及处置的结果—— 使该事物移动位置、改变状态或受到一定的影响。”教学时，我先对“把”字句（1）的语义依照教师参考书做了初步的解释，说明了用法并且操练了句型，然后让学生做练习，用“把”字句改写句子。结果绝大多数同学将句子“喝了茶，吃了东西，看了报纸，新的一天开始了。”改写成：“把茶喝了，把东西吃了，把报纸看了，把新的一天开始了。”看来学生不了解“把”字句（1）对动词的要求。“把”字句（2）句式较

简单，但在做师生问答或学生互相问答练习时，学生也很少主动使用，更别说在自由会话中有意识地尝试使用了，他们总是用学过的一般句型。这样的情况引起了我的反思："把"字句的习得固然有一个过程，也有它的习得顺序和规律，这两个常用、结构又相对简单的句式，学生怎样才能尽快掌握呢？对它的用法，老师是否真的讲清楚了？学生到中高级阶段还会学习结构更复杂的"把"字句式，现阶段教师怎样设计教学才能为他们将来的学习打下一个良好的基础，帮助他们真正理解、并能有意识地正确使用学过的"把"字句呢？

正文

"把"字句的处置义比较抽象，不利于学生理解和运用。我们尝试从"把"字句表现出来的一些具体的可以触摸和感知的特征入手，分析"把"字句的基本语义、出现的语境和句法要求。学者们发现"把"字句受语义上的表达要求、句法的强制性、篇章上的选择、说话人语义重心等因素的限制（金立鑫 1997）。"'把'字句有两个基本特征：'把'字后面的名词必须有指或特指、有定或见于上文，或可以意会；述语中的动词有处置义，即动词对某宾语施加影响，使其产生某种结果"（王建勤 2006）。 据此，我们将从宾语、动词和语用效果三方面入手设计教学，解释"把"字句。

1. 通过关注宾语理解"把"字句的语义

已有学者发现了"把"字句宾语的特点。"把"字句的宾语通常是定指的，"把"字句宾语具有话题性（孙德金 2006）。"把"字句中"把"的作用是使语义重心转移，焦点放在"把"后的宾语上（刘一之 2000）。也就是说，"把"字句中宾语成为焦点和强调的对象。金立鑫（1997）认为，当后续句与前接句的宾语同指时，后续句有使用"把"字句的 倾向。根据这些研究和发现，我们可以将"把"字句置于特定的情景中向学生展示，尽可能多举例子，同时比较"把"字句和之前学过的一般主谓句的差别，从而归纳出"把"字句宾语的某些特点。例句尽量根据学生已有的语法和词汇知识编写，除"把"字句外，避免新语法点，词语也都是学生学过的。如下面这些句子，a 表示之前学过的一般主谓句，b 表示新语法点"把"字句。

(1) a 明天我要去银行换钱。
b 我们去英国旅行，得用英镑，明天我要去银行把钱换了。
(2) a 我们现在先上楼办（一个）借书证。
b 借书要用借书证，我们现在先上楼把借书证办了。
(3) a 明天是朋友的生日，我想送她（一个）兵马俑。

b 我去西安旅游，买了一个兵马俑。明天是朋友的生日，我想把兵马俑送给她。

(4) a 我先去图书馆还（一本）书。

b 这本书快过期了，我今天得把它还了。

(5) a“您的书过期了，得交罚款。”“真对不起，这个月太忙，我忘了。”

b“您的书过期了，得交罚款。”“真对不起，这个月太忙，我把这事儿忘了。”

(6) a 你感冒了吗？吃点儿药，休息一下吧。

b 你感冒了吗？把药吃了，休息一下吧。

(7) a 我从西安带来一个兵马俑送给了他。

b 我从西安带来一个兵马俑，把它送给了他。

从以上这些例句我们可以归纳“把”字句的宾语表现出来的某些特点：

(1)“把”字句中的宾语是说话者想要强调或谈论的对象。当说话人想突出宾语所指的人或事物时，有可能使用“把”字句。

(2) 被强调的宾语是特定的，说话者与听话者都具体指向它，所以它一般在有所预设的情况下出现。前句常有铺垫，或设定一些条件，使它的出现有所预告，动作行为指向它才不会显得突兀。如：例 (6) 前句的“感冒”和后句的“药”。“把”后的宾语常常重复前句提到的事物，也可用人称代词和指称代词，如例 (4) 和例 (7) 句中的“它”，例 (5)“这事儿”。在没有文字作铺垫的情况下，也一定有心理铺垫，即说话者与听者都明白动词涉及的对象是确定的，或是可自然联想到的事物，无须提前说明。如：

（周末朋友电话聊天）

“今天你做什么了？”“在家休息，我把衣服洗了……”

2. 通过关注动词理解“把”字句的语义、动宾关系和对动词的要求

学者们对“把”字句动词的重要性做了描述。“‘把’字句表现某物、某人、某事经历一个完整的变化过程，或者有终结的事件”（杨素英 1998）。“在这个过程或事件中动词部分起着实现‘把’字句语义的关键作用，动词是‘把’字句的核心和语义重心”（孙德金 2006）。“‘把’字句有它的句法环境，包括句法形式的选择和动词的选择”（孙德金 2006）。学生使用“把”字句的困难都与动词有关，表现在：确定中心动词困难，选择动词困难，动词附加成分选择困难（刘颂浩 2003）。

由此看来，什么样的动词可以进入“把”字句，它对宾语有什么样的影响，是准确理解和运用“把”字句的关键。我们主张让学生在语境中理解动词的性质以及动词和宾语的关系，加深对“把”字句语义的理解。

马真（1985）指出“把”字句强调动作行为的目的性和主观性；张旺熹 (1991) 认为“把”字句动作行为的执行具有明确的目的性，如：“我把车开到校门口接你。”这样我们就可以设计

出“把”字句后面紧接着目的的句子，而且尽可能向学生展示更多的例句，集中突显“把”字句出现的语境。同样，例句要包含学生熟悉的词语。为了提示动词和宾语的关系，同时要指出动宾词语。如下面这些例句：

(1) 把药喝了，你的病就好了。（喝药）
(2) 把这本书看了，给我介绍介绍。（看书）
(3) 把钱换了，我们去买明信片。（换钱）
(4) 把这张表填了，他给你办借书证。（填表）
(5) 把相机带来，我们照一张相。（带相机来）
(6) 把朋友们请来参加你的生日聚会。（请朋友来）
(7) 把通知单给我，让我看一下。（给我通知单）
(8) 把照片拿来给大家看看。（拿照片来）
(9) 把男朋友带来，让我们认识认识。（带朋友来）

以上例 (1)- 例 (9) 显示出“把”字句动词的行为有目的性，会引出后面的另一动作行为。除此之外，我们还发现，“把”字句动作也可能是另外一种行为招致的，即和前句的动作行为或事件有顺承的意义联系。也就是说除了例 (1)- 例 (9) 句：“把”字句动作行为 →目的，还可以是 目的 →“把”字句动作行为，如下面的例 (10)- 例 (13)：

(10) 快考试了，把汉语书借来我们复习复习。（借汉语书来）
(11) 下雨了，你把伞带来。（带雨伞来）
(12) 去邮局取包裹，别忘了把包裹通知单带去。（带包裹通知单去）
(13) 我来香港学习，把家人的照片带来了。（带照片来）

应该向学生说明，以上的例 (1)- 例 (13) 句都可以变换成一般主谓句，但因为有了特定的上下文语境，使用“把”字句更能加强行为的目的性或者行为的必要性。

例句 (1)-(13) 同时体现了动词和宾语的关系。那么，如何向学生解释“把”字句对动词的要求呢？《新实用汉语课程》第二册只介绍两种“把”字句。其中“把”字句（2）表示物体的位移，这个用法涉及的动词有限，学生容易理解和掌握。比如使物体位置发生移动的动词，句式 A 可用学过的动词“给”、“送”、“还”、“借”、“找”，句式 B 与趋向补语连用，学过的短语有：“带来”、“带去”、“拿来”、“拿去”、“请来”、“请去”、“借来”、“借去”、“寄来”、“寄去”、“送来”、“送去”。看来对于本册介绍的“把”字句，教学难点和重点 都是“把”字句（1）对动词的要求。

“把”字句（1）表示对宾语的处置（S+ 把 +O+V+ 了）。我们可以搜寻初级阶段学生学过

的课文里的所有动词，找出那些可以完全进入“S+ 把 +O+V+ 了”句式的动词。

除了上面例 (1)- 例 (13) 句后括号内的动宾词语，还有：

(14) 把他忘了，开始新的生活。(忘了他)

(15) 今天太忙了，我把还书的事忘了。(忘了这件事)

(16) 先把这件事办了，再去看朋友。(办事)

(17) 把饭吃了，再去上学。(吃饭)

(18) 把旧课文复习了，再学习新课文。(复习课文)

(19) 把号挂了，再去看病。(挂号)

(20) 我的衣服呢？我把它洗了。(洗衣服)

(21) 你去那儿把钱交了，再回来填表。(交钱)

(22) 先把生词查了，再学习课文。(查生词)

(23)“Have you finished all the exams?”(“你所有考试都考完了吗？”因为学生还没有学习结果补语“完”，所以此处可用英语代替。)

“没有，只把外语考了。”(考外语)

(24.) 把旧东西卖了，再买新的。(卖东西)

总结以上例 (1)- 例 (24)，我们可以归纳出“把”字句动词的特点：

(1)“把”字句的基本语义特征：“把”字句（1）“S+ 把 +O+V+ 了”表达动作的 完成、事件的终结和结果的实现；“把”字句（2）表达同样的语义，特别体现物体位置的转移。

(2)“把”字句中的动词是动作动词、及物动词，对宾语涉及的人或物实施某种行为，施加某种影响，达到终结的目的。“把”字句（1）的动词表达的是可以持续的动作，动作后加“了”来完成和终结动作。“把”字句（2）A 句式 里的动词本身表达位置的移动和变化，（2）B 句式通过趋向补语“来”“去”实现位置的移动。

(3) 鉴于“把”字句动词表达完成和终结意义，之前学过的动词中，表示存在的词语、表达心理状态的词语以及非及物动词不能用于“把”字句。例如：

表示存在和状态的动词：是、在、有、住、喜欢、想、愿意、知道、认识、姓、叫、属非及物动词：病

瞬间完成的行为：开始、来

不具有终结意味的词语：学习、锻炼

同时还应该指出，有些词语加上结果补语或趋向补语，有了终结意味就可以进入“把”字句，如：“把身体锻炼好了”，或者“把汉语学好了”，这样的“把”字句学生会在将来学习。

“英语学生在习得过程中，对‘把’字句的终结性和完成性的关键语义有明显的意识。”（王建勤 2006）“我们在‘把’字句教学时，要围绕终结性和完结性，多设计一些显着性的‘把’字句”（王建勤 2006）。 以上编写的 24 个例句与这一建议正相吻合。

3. 理解“把”字句的语用效果

“‘把’最难的地方是不知道什么时候用，……不少研究者因此把目光投向了‘把’的练习设计，特别是语境的设立上”（刘颂浩 、汪燕 2003）。说话人总是根据情境需求、人物的身份关系和交际目的来选择句式，调整语气，以求达到最佳的表达效果。什么情况下说话人会倾向选择“把”字句呢？我们可以设计明确具体的语境，让学生体会“把”字句的表达效果。如下面的例子：

(1) 表达强烈的要求

听说你认识了一个女朋友，怎么样啊，把照片寄来让我们看看。

(2) 发出指令

把作业写了，再出去玩儿。

把表填了，我给你办借书证。

应该向学生说明的是，重复使用这一句式发出过多的指令，容易让人产生反感。

(3) 追究责任

张伯江（2000）认为“把”字句有“追究责任”的意味，由此设计下面两个例句：

谁把我的钱偷了？

“我们的照相机呢？”“ 对不起，我把它卖了。”

孙德金（2006）认为“把”字句 可表达说话人的主观性，包括说话人的情感（同情、钟情、喜好、厌恶等），说话人的视角和说话人的认识。因为受初级阶段的语言能力所限，学生难以理解此类例句，所以在此不做举例。但这一观点有助于中高级阶段的学生理解和使用“把”字句。

结语

本文提到的两个“把”字句的用法，句式都比较简单。初级汉语学习者理解和掌握得好，会为他们将来学习其它“把”字句打下良好的基础。随着学习的句式逐渐复杂，附加成分增多，学生将会接触更复杂的“把”字句。如果每学习一个新的句式时教师都能利用学生已有的词汇和语法知识，帮助学生从语义、句法要求、篇章和语用效果上理解和掌握，也许会增加学生使用“把”字句的信心。

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论非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的总体设计与教材改造

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摘　要：本文从目的语与非目的语环境下汉语教学的不同特点入手，分析了国内教师在非目的语环境小规模汉语教学中面临的困境，指出这些教师急需调整观念以适应教学，并尝试从教学总体设计和教材改造两个角度提出解决办法。

关键词：非目的语环境，小规模汉语教学，教材，总体设计，汉语教学，对外汉语

随着中外文化交流的日益扩大，汉语教学蓬勃发展，越来越多的中国国内汉语教师或在中国学习过汉语的外籍人士在海外从事汉语教学。与此同时也出现了很多新情况新问题，本文关注的就是其中之一：非目的语环境小规模汉语教学存在的问题。

1. 存在的问题

1.1 对非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的界定

对非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的界定，主要有两个方面的考虑：

一是教学环境是国外非母语教学环境，不同于国内的对外汉语教学。

二是教学为非汉语专业教学，比如：外语系选修课、语言学校汉语培训课等。

一般来说，非目的语环境小规模汉语教学有两个特点：人手少和课时少。人手少指教师往往只有一两个人，课时少是说周学时有限。

1.2 存在问题的表现

在非目的语小规模汉语教学环境下从事教学的教师普遍感到：教学效果不理想，学生边学边忘，学习结束后只记得只言片语，依然不了解汉语是一种什么样的语言。

2. 问题成因分析

在非目的语小规模汉语教学环境下，汉语教学效果差与教师对目的语与非目的语环境下汉语教学的不同特点认识不足有很大关系，这些特点具体体现在教学活动中有以下几个方面：

2.1 从教师角度分析

任课教师来自国内或者是在国内学习过汉语的当地外国人，他们熟悉的是国内的对外汉语教学，习惯使用国内的汉语教材，普遍应用国内的教学模式。事实上国外汉语教学与国内汉语教学有很大不同。很多教师没有意识到这一点，完全照搬国内模式，等发现问题时，教学已经开展了一段时间，不易调整。

2.2 从学生角度分析

学生没有语言环境，缺少练习机会。留学生来中国学习汉语，有机会接触众多中国人，可以反复模仿中国人的语音、语调，有不懂的地方也可以随时找人请教。在学习和生活中，他们使用汉语的范围很广，课堂学到的内容可以在实践中练习。最重要的是他们脱离了原来的语言环境，没有了对母语的依赖，汉语成为必然的公共交际工具。在非目的语环境下，学生接触汉语的机会可能只有课堂，接触的中国人也许只有汉语教师，缺少实践机会的语言学习效果必然很差。

2.3 从课程设置角度分析

课型少，国外小规模汉语教学往往是一门课包揽一切。在国内的汉语教学，教师资源充足，有许多专门的汉语培训机构，课型分工细致入微，从综合、口语、听力、汉字书写、阅读、写作到多姿多彩的中国文化专题，令人目不暇接。非目的语环境下单一的课型，使学生的汉语知识来源有限。教师也可能准备了很多内容，但无法一一讲透。

2.4 从课时安排角度分析

课时少、周期长。两次课间歇较长，学生下次上课时上次课的内容已经遗忘很多。由于周学时比较少，导致一本国内教材最后只能学完很小一部分，学生根本不能了解汉语的概貌。

为了解决非目的语环境小规模汉语教学存在的问题，教师应该面对新要求，重新进行教学总体设计，变“教材领着教师走”为“教师领着教材走”。

3. 解决方法

吕必松（1987a）指出第二语言教学的全部活动有四大环节：总体设计、教材编写（或选择）、课堂教学和测试。

教学总体设计把握着整个教学活动的方向，而教材编写是体现教学总体设计思想的核心。二者在语言教学中至关重要，也是本文尝试解决非目的语环境小规模汉语教学中存在问题的两个着眼点。以下就从教学总体设计和教材改造两个着眼点入手分别加以论述。

3.1 教学总体设计

吕必松（1987b）指出教学总体设计的主要构件包括：教学对象、培养目标、教学要求、教学内容、教学途径、教学法原则等。以下针对非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的实际情况，主要谈培养目标、教学内容、教学法原则、教学途径等几个方面。

3.1.1 培养目标

国内教师照搬国内书本在非目的语小规模汉语教学环境下无法达到理想的教学效果，与教材所体现的培养目标相差甚远，必须对培养目标进行修订。既要量力而为，又要在有限的条件下取得最佳教学效果。所以，不能简单地调低培养目标。应该做到：虽然时间不足，但是还是要让学生学有所获，拥有真实的的成就感。为此应做两方面的改变：

第一是培养目标由细到粗。一般国内零起点教材的目标定位有具体的量化指标。量化包括语音、汉字、词汇、语法各项语言要素和听说读写等各项语言技能。非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的培养目标可以定位为：通过学习使学生对汉语概貌有初步总体认识，熟悉最基本词汇和交际句式，能借助翻译工具和互联网自主学习和查找资料。不刻意追求知识点掌握的精细度。

第二是调高要求和调低要求并举。培养目标由细到粗、让学生了解汉语概貌，实际上是培养目标的调高，以往只有掌握了充分的语言材料的学生才能做到这一点。同时，我们也要相应

调低一些要求：由听说读写并重到说先于听、认读重于书写，这有利于回避部分难点、推动教学进度，避免因为课时短暂使课程进度拖延。

3.1.2 教学内容

教学内容要为培养目标服务，针对上述培养目标的两个变化，教学内容的选取要注意以下几点：

一要教给学生反映汉语基本语言面貌的知识。

教师要参考汉语语音、文字、词汇、语法的各种等级大纲，只选择最基本的汉语知识常识，不用面面俱到。具体说：

语音方面，讲述声母、韵母、声调、儿化、轻声、“一”“不”变调、三声连读变调、升降调。

汉字方面，讲述基本笔画、书写顺序、常用偏旁。

词汇方面，讲述常用基本词汇，关注：能愿动词、数词、量词、语气助词、疑问代词、简单常用的连词，不学习叹词、象声词、不常用的连词。

语法方面，学习汉语句子的最基本结构。汉语一般的句子都是由主语、谓语、宾语和它们的附加成分定语、状语组成。补语比较复杂，时间短暂的汉语教学可以不教补语。

二要贯彻交际性原则。

教师应教给学生基本的交际句式，比如时间、钱、疑问句、数字的表示方法。通过短时间的语言学习使学生的汉语达到标准、规范、精确确实很难，但是学会这几个最基本交际情境却容易得多，这也是语言教学的一个成果。如果学生到目的语环境去，可以很轻松地把这些知识点运用到实践中去。

三要重视体现文化内容的语言现象。

了解一种语言，也应同时了解那种语言所代表的文化，语言中往往融合了各种文化因素，重视语言点中体现的文化内容，可以使学生更深刻地理解那种语言。像汉语时间、地址由大到小的表现形式就很特别。教给学生这些知识的同时，也增加了教学的趣味性。

四要重视汉外语言对比。

汉外语言对比使汉语的特别之处清楚明了，如黄伯荣、廖旭东（2002）在《现代汉语》教材描述了现代汉语的一些特点：汉语的语序很重要、汉语有丰富的量词、汉语有语气词、汉字有表意性等，教给学生这些特点比学生自己在学习中归纳节省时间，也利于提高教学学习效率。

3.1.3 教学法原则

非目的语环境小规模汉语教学并不适合使用所有的教学法，条件上时间上都不允许。我们认为翻译法、听说法和任务教学法较为适合这种教学环境。翻译法在最初尝试第二语言教学过程中被广泛运用，是一种简单直接的教学法，但随着心理、教育、语言理论的发展逐渐处于次

要地位。在国外小规模汉语教学中，使用这种方法不是教学的倒退，虽然翻译法有它的局限，但在有限的条件下它可以实现效益最优化。孙永红（2008）对非目的语环境下汉语专业学生的调查问卷结果显示：零起点的汉语专业学生还很看重适当用母语解释汉语规则。非目的语环境小规模汉语教学（非汉语专业学习），无疑更不应该丢弃翻译教学法。当然，不是什么都要翻译，已经学过的知识点就应该使用汉语来复现。使用翻译法、听说法和任务教学法三种教学方法，有一个核心就是：重视聚合关系，注意扩展的应用，巩固已学知识点，拓展常用基本新知识点。

3.1.4 教学途径

非目的语环境小规模汉语教学应做到：

第一注意课堂与课外相结合。课堂教学很重要，课下学习也可以起到很好的促进作用，弥补教学时间的不足和语言环境的缺失。可以复印相关资料（比如汉字教程）供学生课外学习，组织学生观看中国文化方面的电影，开展教学实践活动（比如领学生到实际情境中练习语言点）等等。鼓励学生的业余学习积极性会收到良好的效果，由田（2011）提出的非目的语环境下汉语自助教学学习模式对学生课下自助互助学习进行了详细的探讨，可以作为参考。

第二善于利用辅助教学手段。可以利用互联网向学生展示中国特有的东西以节省时间，比如通过网络图片学习“馒头”“包子”这样的词语。声调和汉字是学生学习汉语的两个难点，应当备有磁带和汉字卡片，在教学中穿插使用。

3.2 教材改造

3.2.1 教材定位

教材是体现教学总体设计思想的核心，首先要对教材进行定位。

非目的语环境小规模汉语教学使用教材的定位有两个：

一是特殊的综合课。这个教材不同于国内的综合课，它的范围更大，涵盖了综合、口语、听力、汉字书写等课程的内容。

二是特殊的速成课。速成汉语教学具有周期较短、课时集中的特点，可使学生在较短时间内学习较多的内容。非目的语环境小规模汉语教学则课时分散、周期较长。说它是特殊的速成课，是因为它要在课时少、两次课间隔较长的前提下，让学生通过学习了解汉语的概貌。

3.2.2 教材形式

教材改造不是真正改写教材，学生使用的还是教师选用的国内教材，只是教师发给学生补充材料，或者在课堂讲解中直接插入新内容。

3.2.3 教材改造的方法

重新划分教材的重点难点，把有限的时间和精力用来掌握最基本的语言点，合理处理较难的、次重点的、非基本的语言点。改造教材要以原有教材为纲，扩展基本知识点，把后边的相关知识点提到前边，使学生在较短时间内了解汉语概貌。

3.2.4 具体做法

一是扩展。选取教材的一部分（要求从第一课开始整体选择，不做抽选，根据教学计划和教学进度决定选到哪一课），评估各课生词、语法、课文、语音、语法、练习，分别标记常用、次常用。对常用项目进行扩展 ，包括同类扩展（如表示颜色、家庭成员的词语的学习）、反义扩展（如形容词可以配对学习）、相似扩展（如“这、这儿、哪、哪儿、那、那儿”这些词语类似且容易混淆，可以一起学习）。至于次常用、非常用项目，理解就可以了。

二是复现。如果说扩展是拓展知识点，那么复现则是巩固扩展成果。改造教材的时候，已经提到前边扩展的项目，在原有课节还可以保留，此时作为复现处理。知识点经历了扩展和复现两次展示，学生将更容易记住。

三是总结。与扩展相反，总结是把学过的各个单一相关知识点，放到一起，找出相似性，帮助学生记忆。比如：“商店 - 书店 - 饭店”里的“店”表示的是一种 shop，“奶奶 - 妈妈 - 姐姐 - 妹妹”汉字的左边都有一个“女”表示 female。

3.2.5 教材改造的注意事项

一要突出重点。汉字辨认、常用词（包括名词、动词、形容词、量词等）和常用交际句式是学习的重点，是学习内容的主干。

二要合理处理难点。声调、汉字书写、复杂语法结构是学习的难点，要采取有效对策保证学习效果。

三要使练习方式简单化，重在鼓励学生。教师要改变观念，学生任何一点从无到有的知识点的掌握都值得鼓励，教学目标就是使学生尽可能多地掌握汉语知识。比如考试和练习的题目可以是“写出十个声母、写出十个韵母、写出从 1 到 10 十个数字的汉字、写出四个声调符号、翻译、给出答案配对”这样明显容易的问题。学生受到鼓励后，可以更有学习积极性。教师也不会面临因课时不足、知识点学得少而无试可考的尴尬局面。在此基础上，不妨再设计一些稍有难度但有助于学生锻炼解决实际问题能力的题目，比如：给学过的词标调号，写出“上海”、“北京”、“烤鸭”等词的声母和韵母、看生词回答问题。

4. 小结

本文提出的非目的语环境小规模汉语教学的总体设计与教材改造，只是为了在有限条件下提高教学效果的不得已之举。

适应这种特殊条件提出的培养目标与以往不同，它可以取得一定客观效果：使学生初步了解汉语面貌，掌握最基本的交际基础，拥有一定的自学基础。但也存在着明显的缺点：学生语言使用的流畅性和准确性还不够理想。

事实上，海外汉语本土教材也有自己的发展和不断壮大的过程，只是国内教师对此并不了解。目的语与非目的语两种环境下的汉语教学有许多可待研究之处。今后海内外汉语教师应当扩大交流，共同开发出适应不同目的语环境的成形教材。随着大家的不断关注，我们的汉语教学事业一定会更上一层楼。

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对外汉语教学中的朗读教学

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对外汉语教学培养学生的听、说、读、写、译的能力。这五个方面，“读”又包括着阅读与朗读两种形式。在对外汉语教学中，相比于阅读，朗读尚未受到应有的重视。有研究者撰文指出：朗读教学是对外汉语教学中的一个缺失环节，是对外汉语语音教学的盲点。这种现象，值得关注和研究。

朗读在对外汉语教学中有特殊的功用。朗读，是把书面上写的语言变为口头上说的语言，把无声的语言变为有声语言。这一“变成”，意义重大。人们都知道，学习任何一种语言，包括汉语，都不能仅仅学习口语，而必须掌握书面语言。语言中有两种语体，“一是口语，一是文章语，口语是普通说话用的，为一般人民所共喻；文章语是写文章同的，须得有相当教养的人才能了解，这当然全以口语为基本，但是用字更丰富，组织更精密，使其适于表现复杂的思想感情之用。这在一般日用口语是不胜任的。”罗常培、吕叔湘先生早就指出：1955 年在现代汉语规范化问题学术会议上的报告中指出：“‘语言规范化’的‘语言’指的是民族共同语，民族共同语的集中表现是文学语言，文学语言的主要形式是书面形式，所以规范化的主要对象是书面语言。”“文学语言有它的口语的一面，但是决不是所有的口语都是文学语言；文学语言不是日常语言的复制品，而是日常口语经过文学加工的形式。文学语言和谈话的情况不同，对方不在面前，而内容又一般地较为复杂，较为抽象，就不能不要求语言更精密，更细致，有更高的逻辑性。事实上，书面语言通过印刷物在文化的发展上起到极其广大的作用，它领导整个语言，包括日常口语向更完善的方向发展。所以语言的规范化必然要以书面语为主要对象。……有各种各样的作品，有的看过就丢开的作品，有长久传诵的作品，在规范的巩固和发展上，毫无疑问后者起着决定性的作用。”这里讲的是汉语规范化问题，但也适合于对外汉语教学，因为对外汉语教学，自然也需要教授规范的汉语。

对外汉语教学中，书面语言的学习非常重要。不过，书面语言尽管更精密，更细致，有更高的逻辑性，但它却有一个不足之处，就是没有语音。书面语言“加强了语言的精密性、艺术性，似是胜过口语的粗糙；但却有一个不可弥补的最大缺欠，缺欠了一个语言的重要成分（要

素）——语音。语言是词汇、语法、语音三者的结合体，有如三鼎足的关系。严格地说，书面上写的语言是不完全的语言。语气、语调、语势、语感，抑场顿挫、轻重缓急，书面上受到局限，全都表达不出来。”语言学家俞敏更是认为，书面语言即“文字”是一种失真的工具。他说：“‘语词’只可代表概念而不能代表个别的感觉经验。例如说‘冷’这个语词，在某甲使用起来，本只代表他的冷的概念，即无数次冷的经验的总和。如果他要说出他某一次的感觉来，他必要把那一次的时、地、人、温度等说出来，同样他还须说出他这个‘人’的体重、年龄、教育等等。所以说，要确切说出一次冷的经验，他必须说：‘我体重一百六十磅，年卅，曾受大学教育，……在某年某月日于东经若干、北纬若度，海拔若干尺，在一所铁筋洋灰房……所感受那样的冷。’这种表现法不但是不必须的，而且是不可能的。”“当今尚无任何文字能够准确记录语调。语言中调的变化，与重音所在，恰是两个极重要的成分。“我给他一杯水”，如果重读在“我”上，意思是“不是给别人的”；在“给”上，意思是“不是卖给他”；在“他”上，是说“不给你”；在“一”上，是说“不多给”；在“杯”上，是“不给一盆”；在“水”上，是说“给的不是酒”。这是六个意义完全不同的句子！如果写在纸上，这些分别就完全消失了，其结果自然是意义的歪曲与含混。既使将来有一个社会中所使用的实施文字，能如留声机也似的，把语言的音、调、力、气呼等等完全记下来，那伴随着语言的环境、面部的表情、身体的动作、声音的音色等等，帮助了解的东西也是无法记的。换言之，文字永远是一种失真的记录工具。萧伯纳也曾指出：“文学艺术，不管它在语法上如何精确，也不能把语调表达出来，因为说一个‘是’字有五十种方法，说一个‘不是’有五百种方法，可是写下来的只有一个字。”朱光潜曾指出，同样的一个词，说它时的“腔调”不同意思有可能完全不同。他举例说：“比如说‘来！’在战场上向敌人挑战所用的腔调，和在家庭里呼唤亲爱的人所用的腔调绝不相同。……腔调是属于情感的，也是属于语言的。离开腔调以及和它同类的生理变化，情感就失去它的强度，语言也就失去它的生命。”闻一多也说：“书面语言不仅仅有其‘意思’，而且有其‘意味’。‘意思’或许可以讲解给学生听，让学生理解，但‘意味’却不同。按闻一多的说法，‘意味’比‘意义’要紧得多，而意味正是寄托在声调里的。”

朗读的一个特点是，需要对书面语言作品做整体的把握，而这正是真切理解、体会其中字词的基础，因为字词的确切的含义，特别是它的情感意味，是由其上下文来决定的。对此，朱光潜这样说：“在文学作品里，每个字须有它的个性，它的特殊生命。所以文学家或是避免熟烂的字，或是虽用它却设法灌输一种新生命给它。一个字所结的邻家不同，意义也就不同。比如‘步出城东门，遥望江南路，前日风雪中，故人从此去’和‘骏马秋风塞北，杏花春雨江南’两诗中同有‘江南’，而前诗的‘江南’含有惜别的凄凉意味，后诗的‘江南’却含有风光清丽的意味。”朱光潜所说，不单指朗读，但毫无疑问，朗读之时，比简单地“看”，更能够体会字词的意味。

同时，朗读更能够让学生体会汉语美。汉语有声调，是特别具有音声美的语言，而汉语的这种音声美，在默读中是无法体会的。必须朗读才行，只有朗读才能真切体会汉语的声调

之美。"'白杨'的两个阳平，前短后长，前低后高，前轻后重，表现了杨树直立挺拔的特征，'垂柳'的一阳一上，前升后降，前短后长，前刚后柔，表现了柳树婀娜多姿的特征。'虚怀若谷'的'怀'扬'谷'收，'壮志凌云'的'志'降'云'放，那声调的作用不是愈益鲜明了吗？"汉语的这种特点，外国留学生慢慢也会体会到的。

学习朗读的过程，同时也就是学习规范的现代汉语及普通话的过程，通过朗读学习普通话，是非常有效的方法。这是因为，"朗读者要朗读某篇文字作品，这作品的每个字，每个词、每句话，都要首先解决声母、韵母、声调，轻重格式，儿化、音变等问题，真是字斟句酌，不能马虎的事。初学普通话时，在朗读中比较容易发现问题，也比较容易纠正错误。诸如把'南方'读成'兰帆'；把'农村'中的'村'字的调值读成 33 或 22，而不是 55；把'战士'读成中重格式，而不是重中格式；把'好啊（哇）'读成'好呀'……这都不标准，不能说是规范的、标准的普通话。在说话时，既没有文字依据，语流又快，口腔再松软无力，就不容易感觉到存在的问题，时过境迁，纠正起来也实在困难。"外国学生学习汉语，说话时，语音语调上常常不是很准确，有着所谓"洋腔洋调"的现象。克服与纠正"洋腔洋调"，仅凭借一般的语音教学是不够的。因为，"语音教学的内容仅局限于静态的语音单位，而对语流中的动态的语音内容如朗读和语流中涉及到的节奏、停连、语速、轻重音等语音技巧没有任何安排和要求。"而外国学习者单独读一个字、词之时，往往也算标准，但一说话时仍然"洋腔洋调"，而这往往是在节奏、停连、语速、轻重音方面出问题。有研究者指出："忽略朗读训练，是对外汉语语音教学效果不理想的原因之一。"有研究者指出："对外国留学生来说，'说'固然重要，但如果没有朗读好课文，又怎么能按照朗读的'模式''说'出来呢？说话的训练若是离开了朗读，那就丢了基础，成了无源之水。大凡这样的课堂，教师费了九牛二虎之力训练学生"说"，效果却不佳。这很有道理。

就汉语教学的效率来说，朗读教学决不是浪费了时间，而往往是提高了效率。这是因为，朗读是眼、口、耳并用的活动。多种感官同时发挥作用，会给人留下更为深刻的印象。"文字作品是诉诸视觉的，可以反复看，经常看，无疑是一种优势，可是，看仍有一定的局限，除去一目十行的粗读不说，就是细读，也只是凭借一条渠道传入大脑，留下的印象，远不如多条渠道来得深刻，这正如看舞台演出比看文字剧本收益更大，道理是一样的。朗读，不但要看，反复看，还要变为有声语言，从而增加了传入大脑皮层的刺激渠道；同时，更需要认真领会，准确表达文字作品的词语含义和精神实质。这样，对体味作品就提出了更高的要求，在深入体味中所得也就更多了。通过朗读，自会发觉'对味儿'或'不对味儿'、'贴切'或'不贴切'的问题，于是再看、再体味、再读。这种精益求精的反复，就意味着对文字作品的更深的理解、更深的感受。不应忽视的是，诉诸声音之后，声音出口时负载的思想感情，比蕴含在文字中、文字背后的，更为可感。因此，由于朗读者的再创作，听者可以比自己去看文字作品体味更深，它的判断，品评也就会更为切实。"

总之，朗读在对外汉语教学中有重要的作用。事实上，"朗读"并不是一种单纯的或"独

立”的能力，它涉及到语言能力的方方面面。朗读是一种“说”的形式，朗读将语言文字符号转化为有声语言形式的一种活动，属于“说”的范畴。朗读自然也是一种“读”，朗读者只有通过视觉“看”到文字并将之转化为相应的语言形式才能进行朗读。只不过是出声的读。朗读还是一种“听”的形式，朗读者在朗读的时候，自然都会听到自己发出的语言信息。由此，朗读也就在培养学习者“读”、“说”、“听”能力方面，发挥着独特的作用。不仅如此，朗读对“写”也具有重要的意义。朗读，“绝不仅只是读者‘念字出声’的无思维活动，而是动员了自己全部精力的再创作。于是，朗读多少篇之后，多少次朗读之后，那潜移默化的成果就会日益显露出来，不但可以在自己写作时模仿、消化那文笔，还可以在说话时对照、应用那词章，从而使我们的思维精密、情感丰富，文字表达和口头表达迅速趋于准确和生动。”（张颂着《朗读学》，39 页。湖南教育出版社，1983。）

朗读教学有着非常重要的价值。然而，就目前的教学实际看，外国学生的汉语朗读能力大多很差。有研究者注意到，有的留学生甚至根本不会读课文，“读出来的汉语是一个一个字地往外‘崩’，结结巴巴、缺少连贯，不会断句，没有节奏，在语流不会变调，或者是变调生硬，加上不规范的发音和带上母语中特有的语气词，显得生硬、晦涩，满口洋腔洋调。如果不看课文，根本不知道学生用什么语言在读，在‘读’什么，更不用说节奏和轻重音的处理，感情的把握和表达的流利了。”提出：“朗读能力低下，忽视朗读造成的负面影响不仅仅如此，还表现在听、说、读、写等各个方面，甚至影响到汉语学习的全过程。”

朗读教学需要改进。首先应该是观念的改变，即应充分认识朗读在对外汉语教学中的价值。其次，对外汉语教师自身朗读能力的提高，也很有必要。对外汉语教师应有必要的朗读知识和朗读的基本训练。这是教师范读所必不可少的。同时，也是指导学生所必不可少的。“教师本身朗读水平不高，或者毫无鉴赏力，就拿不出精彩的范读，也无法指导学生。在教室里，老师进行有声有色的表情朗读，这种现场教学效果是最佳的。”再次，还应考虑到教材问题，目前许多对外汉语教材所选的课文，是不太适合朗读的。

外国学生对朗读是有兴趣的。有研究者对北京大学对外汉语教育学院中高级的 114 名留学生进行的调查中，回答“你是否喜欢成段朗读”这一选项选，有 95 人选择“很喜欢”和比较喜欢，占调查人数的 83% 。在回答“你是否希望老师在课堂上安排适当的成段朗读”时，选择不喜欢的只有 7 人，占调查人数的 6% 。由此可见，学生对教师在课堂教学中安排成段的朗读训练是持欢迎态度。问题是，我们需要重视朗读教学，提高朗读教学质量。

对外汉语教学中的朗读教学存在的问题并不是孤立的。多年来，国内现当代的语文教育偏重于讲解，对朗读教学也不够重视。实际上是丢弃了中国传统语文教学的宝贵经验。近年来，语文教学界的有识之士重视汉语本身的特点，重视对传统语文教学经验的继承，其中包括对朗读的重视，这将给对外汉语教学以启示。

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